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THE INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF PUBLIC HIGHER INSTITUTIONS ON COLLEGE ATTENDANCE FROM VARYING SOCIOECONOMIC AND ABILITY LEVELS.

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THE CAREERS OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GRADUATES' PURSUITS AND THEIR PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS, FAMILY BACKGROUND, AND VARIOUS ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS WERE INVESTIGATED. AN AREA OF MAJOR CONCERN WAS THE IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS WHICH APPEAR TO BEAR ON COLLEGE ATTENDANCE. A SAMPLE OF 9,779 STUDENTS WITHIN 16 COMMUNITIES RESPONDED TO A COMPREHENSIVE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE SPRING OF 1959 BEFORE GRADUATION. IN ADDITION, DATA ON SCORES OF ACADEMIC APTITUDE TESTS, PERFORMANCE ON A PERSONALITY INVENTORY, AND RANK IN CLASS WERE PROCURED. ALL GRADUATES WERE FOLLOWED UP IN THE FALL OF 1959 INCLUDING THOSE ATTENDING COLLEGE IN THE SUMMER OF 1960. FROM THE SAMPLE 43 PERCENT ENTERED COLLEGE IN THE FALL FOLLOWING GRADUATION, AND ONE-THIRD WENT DIRECTLY INTO EMPLOYMENT. THE TWO MAJOR REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING COLLEGE WERE INADEQUATE FINANCIAL RESOURCES AND A PREFERENCE FOR WORK. SCHOLASTIC ABILITY, HIGH SCHOOL RANK, FATHER'S OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL, EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF PARENTS, READING REPORTEDLY DONE BY PARENTS, PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, AND LOCAL COLLEGE LOCATION WERE FACTORS RELATED TO COLLEGE ATTENDANCE. OF THE STUDENTS WHO ENTERED COLLEGE IN THE FALL 83 PERCENT FINISHED THE ACADEMIC YEAR. PERSISTENCE WAS FOUND TO BE RELATED TO ABILITY, SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS, AND CERTAIN PERSONALITY TRAITS. (GC)

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THE INFLUENCE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF PUBLIC HIGHER INSTITUTIONS ON COLLEGE ATTENDANCE FROM VARYING SOCIOECONOMIC AND ABILITY LEVELS

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FOREWORD

An emerging concern of those who must plan for higher education in today's society is the matter of access to educational opportunity. The problem stems from a variety of sources. In the first place, the dramatic increase in the college population places a heavy burden on educators to provide the necessary accommodations. This situation is magnified by an urgent and persistent force exerted by a complex social and technological society on young people from a variety of backgrounds to extend their education beyond high school. Thus, the potential college population today is one which cuts across all levels of ability, socioeconomic background, intellectual commitment, and other variables. Obviously, the sheer force of upward mobility, together with the recognized need for further education on the part of more and more people, accentuates the problem of accommodation.

Access to college is not entirely dependent upon sufficient college facilities and staff to provide adequate space. As college costs increase and as a higher percentage of students from lower socioeconomic levels aspire to college, other restraints on access become apparent. In modern society there must be concern about how best to provide opportunity for the many young people who come from homes where the financial resources, the family motivation, or the cultural patterns often serve as severe deterrents to college attendance.

The Center for the Study of Higher Education has long been interested in the matter of diversity in higher education, particularly diversity among students. An important consideration in diversity is the extent to which and how students flow from school to college. What proportion of high school graduates continue their education? What restraints are there on college attendance? What types of students go to what types of colleges? Does the availability in a community of certain types of colleges increase the likelihood of college attendance?

These and questions like them have been the subject of the research discussed in this report. Dr. Medsker and Dr. Trent have addressed themselves to some of the fundamental issues in connection with college attendance on the part of high school graduates from various ability and socioeconomic levels. They have made a special investigation of the influence which the presence in a community of various types of public colleges appears to have on college attendance. Though not randomly selected, it is believed that the sample of 10,000 graduates from 37 high schools in 16 communities located in 9 states provides a significant insight into the early development and pursuits of young people.

This report, which concentrates on the graduates during their first year out of high school, is the first of three which will deal with the same sample. Later publications will report, even more comprehensively, data from a longitudinal study of the graduates over a period of four years beyond high school.

Needless to say, if the planning for higher education is to proceed on a rational basis, it must be based on empirical data about high school graduates and the problems they face as they enter a world in which universal opportunity for higher education is becoming a national goal.

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INTRODUCTION

A democracy's ability to maintain itself and to assume a position of leadership depends upon its utilization of resources, both material and human. The United States has been acutely conscious of the need to develop and utilize its physical resources, and has made spectacular progress in agricultural and industrial development. Nor has the human factor been neglected. Great strides have been made in providing for the health, education, and welfare of its people and, although much yet remains to be done, the United States has perhaps made more significant advances than any other country in the world in recognizing the inherent dignity of the individual.

But in modern society no nation can rest on a *status quo* position. Thus, in the area of human resources the demand for an educated citizenry is increasing and the situation will become more severe as the social, civic, and economic life of the nation becomes even more complex. Assuming that the society is served best when every citizen is allowed to develop fully his various capacities, it follows that there must be a national commitment to creating the optimum conditions under which such development may be realized.

Admittedly, much of society's concern about its members has to be on an *en masse* basis. In education, for example, while there has been increasing emphasis on better schools, for the most part this emphasis has been on schools in general or on students in general. Relatively little effort has been made to focus on students *as individuals*. Even the increasing concern about such matters as the quantity and quality of guidance services and the attrition of able students has tended to be about students in general rather than about them as individuals. Only in recent years have research workers begun to inquire more specifically into the type of student who tends to persist in school, to perform well while he is there, and to achieve an optimum personal development during his scholastic career.

Various leaders have voiced concern about the great waste of human talent occasioned by the many qualified high school graduates who do not continue in college. In his 1962 State-of-the-Union message to Congress, President John F. Kennedy said: "If this nation is to grow in wisdom and strength, then every able high school graduate should have the opportunity to develop his talents. Yet nearly half lack either the funds or the facilities to attend college." In another section of the same message the President declared: "A child miseducated is a child lost. The damage cannot be repaired. Civilization, ran an old saying, is a race between education and catastrophe." In an era of unparalleled social and technological advances, the importance of the maximum development of the individual for *his* sake, as well as for the welfare of society in general, must be considered. Few people dare predict the changes to be wrought in the American society within the next few years, but one point is clear: the average individual will face an occupational setting, as well as civic and personal problems, far more complex than those faced by any previous generation.

Reference to this increasing complexity of life may be found in the number of published statements pertaining to the effects of automation on American society. Perhaps none of these is more dramatic than a report prepared by Donald N. Michael on behalf of the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions. The report, entitled *Cybernation: The Silent Conquest*,[1] vividly sets forth the alarming implications of cybernation: unemployment on an unprecedented scale, more and more forced and meaningless leisure time, and the undermining of some of our most cherished beliefs and assumptions. The great disruptions, the report indicated, will come in the blue collar and middle management groups. In effect, the report is a plea for immediate over-all national planning to meet the crises ahead and for concerted all-out efforts toward changing people's attitudes concerning occupations, use of leisure, and related matters. The question is raised, though not answered, as to what should be the education of a people more and more enveloped in cybernation. In any event, it seems inevitable that young people will remain in school longer, not only to prepare themselves better for the complex life ahead, but also to avoid prematurely entering the labor market.

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[1] Donald N. Michael, *Cybernation: The Silent Conquest*, Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, Santa Barbara, California, 1962.

If the nation's youth are to have optimum preparation for their role in a new society, the matter of their education is important at all levels--kindergarten through college. But the question becomes especially critical at the time of graduation from high school. The distribution of high school graduates among the many pursuits open to them is, therefore, a matter for immediate and intense concern. It is common knowledge that many of those with ability do not take advantage of any educational opportunities beyond high school. Many graduates go directly into employment, military service, and in the case of girls, homemaking. What are the characteristics of those who follow each of these various pursuits? What factors are related to their course of action? Of the graduates who enter college, what factors bear upon where they go and upon their performance there? Are some high school students inevitably "marginal" college students? Are others almost certain to succeed? Do the answers to such questions depend in part upon the types of colleges attended? If the changing social and technological scene suggests that an increasing percentage of America's high school graduates should continue their formal education beyond the high school, by what means may this be accomplished?

In the period ahead, those who teach and counsel high school and college students or who help plan the structure for education at the post-high school level will surely need to know more than they now do both about the factors involved and the predictors of post-high school behavior. Moreover, they must be aware of the extent to which the nature of the higher educational system is itself a determinant of what graduates do after high school. At the same time, it must be recognized that students with varying characteristics and backgrounds will react in different ways to societal changes and that it will be necessary to build new attitudes toward the kind of society resulting from such factors as cybernation, as well as toward the implications of such forces for the education of people at all age levels.

As counselors, teachers, administrators, parents, and others concentrate on the problem of maximizing the number of young people who continue their education beyond high school, recognition should be given to the evolutionary process of decision-making concerning college. As Pearson has said:

> The movement of young people from schools into colleges and universities in the United States is not a single step that is taken between the end of high school and the beginning of college. Rather, it is a long-term, intricate, and loosely organized movement, characterized principally by a variety of individual decisions made by young people and their parents, by schools, and, eventually, by higher institutions. Further, there are great regional and local differences in the way this process operates across the country.[2]

Thus, there is an obvious need for information about the complex factors which affect ultimate decisions regarding college.

Despite the urgent need for such information, there is a paucity of research on the factors which determine students' post-high school pursuits, in particular the factors which may affect their decision to go to college and their subsequent performance there. Fortunately, within the last decade more data on these matters have become available. The accumulated evidence from these studies shows that the severest loss in the development of talent through a college experience comes from among those students with low socioeconomic backgrounds, and that there is no single or easy remedy, such as scholarships, for this problem.

It seems clear that much of the identified loss of talent is attributable to different cultural factors and motivational patterns coincident with diverse backgrounds. This would suggest that the pursuits which young people follow beyond high school are dependent upon a multiplicity of psychological and situational factors, many of which are interrelated. Havighurst has drawn these factors into a probability equation.

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[2] Richard Pearson, "Admission to College Under Conditions of Abundant Educational Opportunity," Report to the *Puerto* Rico Conference on the Implications of Universal Higher Education, November 15-21, 1964.

> The probability that a given boy or girl will go to college depends on the following factors: mental ability; social expectation, or what the family and the society expects of him; individual motivation, or his own life goals; financial ability, in relation to the cost of continued education; propinquity to an educational institution. This proposition can be put into the form of a mathematical equation.
>
> $$p=a\ (\text{mental ability}) + b\ (\text{social expectation}) + c\ (\text{individual motivation}) + d\ (\text{financial ability}) + e\ (\text{propinquity}),$$
>
> where p is the probability that John Doe or Ruth Doe will go on to a post-high school institution of learning, and a, b, c, d, and e are constants to be determined by empirical studies of boys and girls in the United States.[3]

Fortunately, there is increasing concern in the United States as well as in other countries about the various restraints on access to higher education.[4] In this country agencies such as the Educational Policies Commission have pointed to the necessity for universal opportunity for education beyond the high school.[5] In addition, agencies in practically every state are endeavoring to determine how the obligations for post-high school education can best be met. In many states the concern is not limited to the students who normally would be expected to attend college but extends as well to those who under present circumstances would likely be denied this opportunity. It is recognized that the availability of higher education in the United States is greater than in any other nation and that the percentage of college-age youth who are in college is increasing. On the other hand, the fact that many young people face severe social, cultural, and economic restraints suggests that at present universal opportunity for education beyond the high school is more apparent than real.

As a means of examining further the many forces which bear on the immediate major pursuits of high school graduates, The Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University of California, Berkeley, in 1959 undertook a study of such a group in certain selected communities in the United States. The study was supported by funds from the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education under Project Number 438 (SAE 8136). The original intention was to concentrate primarily on determining the influence which the presence in a community of different types of public higher-education institutions has on the college attendance of students from varying socioeconomic and ability levels. Almost immediately, however, it appeared expedient so to design the study that inquiry into other possible factors affecting college attendance would be possible, even though the type of local college remained an important element in the inquiry.

The central idea was to study intensively the high school graduates of a given year in a number of communities. Because of the interest in the influence of different types of colleges on college attendance it was necessary to select communities according to the types of public colleges located in them. Four situations were examined: (1) communities with a local public junior college, (2) communities with a freshman-sophomore university extension center, (3) communities with a non-selective state college, and (4) communities with no public college.

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[3] Robert J. Havighurst and Robert R. Rodgers, "The Role of Motivation in Attendance at Post-High School Educational Institutions," in Byron S. Hollinshead, Who Should Go to College, Columbia University Press, New York, 1953, p. 137.

[4] For a thorough treatment of this topic see Frank Bowles, Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, UNESCO and The International Association of Universities, Belgium, 1963.

[5] Universal Opportunity for Education Beyond the High School, Educational Policies Commission, NEA, Washington, D.C., 1964.

At the outset the research staff identified fourteen communities in the Middle West with similar cultural, economic, and demographic characteristics and the variety of college-type situations referred to above. Four of the communities contained junior colleges, four contained extension centers, four contained state colleges, and two had no public colleges. Subsequently, on the recommendation of the advisory committee to the project, two additional communities in California were selected for comparative purposes. One of these was selected because it had many of the characteristics of the communities in the Middle West and, in addition, maintained one of the many California junior colleges. The other was selected because of its metropolitan nature and because it was considered desirable to compare college attendance in smaller one-college or no-college communities with college attendance in a large city in or near which a variety of public colleges were located.

By means of extensive personal contacts with officials in public and private schools, the cooperation of 37 high schools and more than 10,000 June, 1959, graduates in 16 communities was enlisted.[6] Many data were collected while the graduates were still in high school. These included pertinent mental ability test scores, rank in class, the score on a short verbal aptitude test, responses to a 75-item questionnaire, and responses to an attitude inventory taken from the Omnibus Personality Inventory, an instrument used extensively by the Center for the Study of Higher Education.

Contact was re-established with the graduates in October, 1959, to discover their activities since graduation. More than 90 per cent responded to a questionnaire, thus providing substantial data which could be related to their background and characteristics. Of the more than 10,000 in the original sample, sufficient background and follow-up data were assembled on 9,778 of the graduates to permit determination of possible relationships between most of the independent and dependent variables. Since the study was oriented toward college attendance, further inquiries were made into the characteristics related to the persistence and performance of graduates in varying types of colleges during the year following graduation from high school.

The data reported here are those from the study that are considered most pertinent and useful in identifying important factors bearing on the immediate pursuits of high school graduates, especially where those pursuits relate to college.[7] A later report will deal with a further follow-up of the same sample of graduates for a period of four years beyond high school. This extended study was also supported by the Office of Education, under OE Contract 1328.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is important at this point to acknowledge the many individuals whose assistance in the study was invaluable. At the top of the list is the staff assigned to the project without whose efficient help, interest, and untiring efforts the study could not have been completed: Janet Ruyle, whose assistance in data collection, analysis, and interpretation was indispensable; Dayton Axtell, who played a major role in assembling the data during the early stages of the study; Irene Athey, who was most helpful in bringing many of the data together for report purposes; and Thomas Shay, who was exceedingly helpful and efficient in completing many aspects of the final report.

Other previous or current members of the Center staff, who from time to time assisted in planning the study, developing instruments, and interpreting data include Burton Clark, Paul Heist, Martin Trow, George Yonge, Jonathan Warren, Marvin Veregge, Beverly McArthur, Joan Marsh, Terry Berge, William Raley, and Robert Miller. Adelaide Vawter, administrative assistant at the Center, was most helpful during the entire course of the study as were also the various members of the clerical staff who worked on the

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[6] See Appendix A for a list of the communities in which the study was conducted as well as for certain information pertaining to the cooperating high schools.

[7] For the sake of clarity in the chapters to follow this project will be referred to as the College Attendance Study or in its abbreviated form, "CAS."

project. Special recognition is due the Center's chairman, T. R. McConnell, for his continuous interest in the project and his valuable counsel.

Another group of individuals without whose help the study could not have been completed includes the administrators, counselors, and clerical workers in the 37 cooperating high schools and in the various colleges which the graduates entered. Words cannot express adequately the Center's appreciation of the many hours and painstaking efforts spent by the staffs of the institutions listed in Appendix A. It can only be hoped that the data from the study will have sufficient local value to compensate in part the individuals for their cooperation.

Finally, the staff members remain appreciative of the help given by the following three individuals who served in an advisory capacity in initially planning the study: Ruth E. Eckert, Robert J. Havighurst, and S. V. Martorana.

CHAPTER I

CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS AT THE POINT OF GRADUATION

Although there is no "typical" high school senior, it is of interest to observe some of the general characteristics of a large group of young people at the point of high school graduation. Such questions as the following may be asked: How is such a group divided by sex? What are the social, familial, and cultural backgrounds of a group of seniors? How high are their aspirations? How do they vary in their academic aptitude, in their basic personality characteristics? Naturally, no overall generalizations can be made from the data collected on the approximately 10,000 students studied in this project, but the relatively large size of the sample, together with a comparison of certain data with national norms, does shed some light on what high school seniors in general are like as well as on the extent to which the sample in the study is representative.

SEX

As would be expected, the group was nearly evenly divided as to sex. In fact, of the 9,778 seniors in the sample, 4,676 or 48 per cent were men and 5,102 or 52 per cent were women.[1] These figures closely resemble those of the national population for the same age group as reported in the 1960 census (50 per cent men and 50 per cent women).[2]

MENTAL ABILITY

In order to compare students in this sample with larger peer groups, and also to analyze the relationships between ability and other variables, data on the general academic aptitude of each student in the sample were obtained from the cooperating high schools. Since a variety of tests were in use among the high schools, it was necessary to equate all scores with one arbitrarily selected test, and since more scores were available on the School and College Ability Test (SCAT) than on any other instrument, this was used as the base.[3] In addition, each senior was asked to complete a twenty-word vocabulary test (CAVD), adapted by Thorndike from his longer test included in the Institute of Educational Research Intelligence Scale. The typical correlation coefficient between this test and general intelligence is reported at .83 by Miner.[4] The returns from this instrument gave an additional ability measure and at the same time were of help in equating other test scores.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of equivalent SCAT scores for the students in the study in comparison with the scores for 12th grade students in the normative sample as reported by the publisher of the test. Although the standard deviations are somewhat different, the relatively comparable means for both groups indicate the representativeness of the sample from the standpoint of mental ability as measured by SCAT. While Figure 1 does not show scores by sex, it is of interest that the mean score for men in the sample (293.5) was practically the same as the mean score for women (292.3).

SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Father's Occupation. Of the several indices which reflect the socioeconomic and family background of any particular group within the general population, the occupation of the father is considered by many to be the best single index. The occupational levels of

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[1] Unless otherwise indicated, the numbers for tables used in this chapter are those given here.

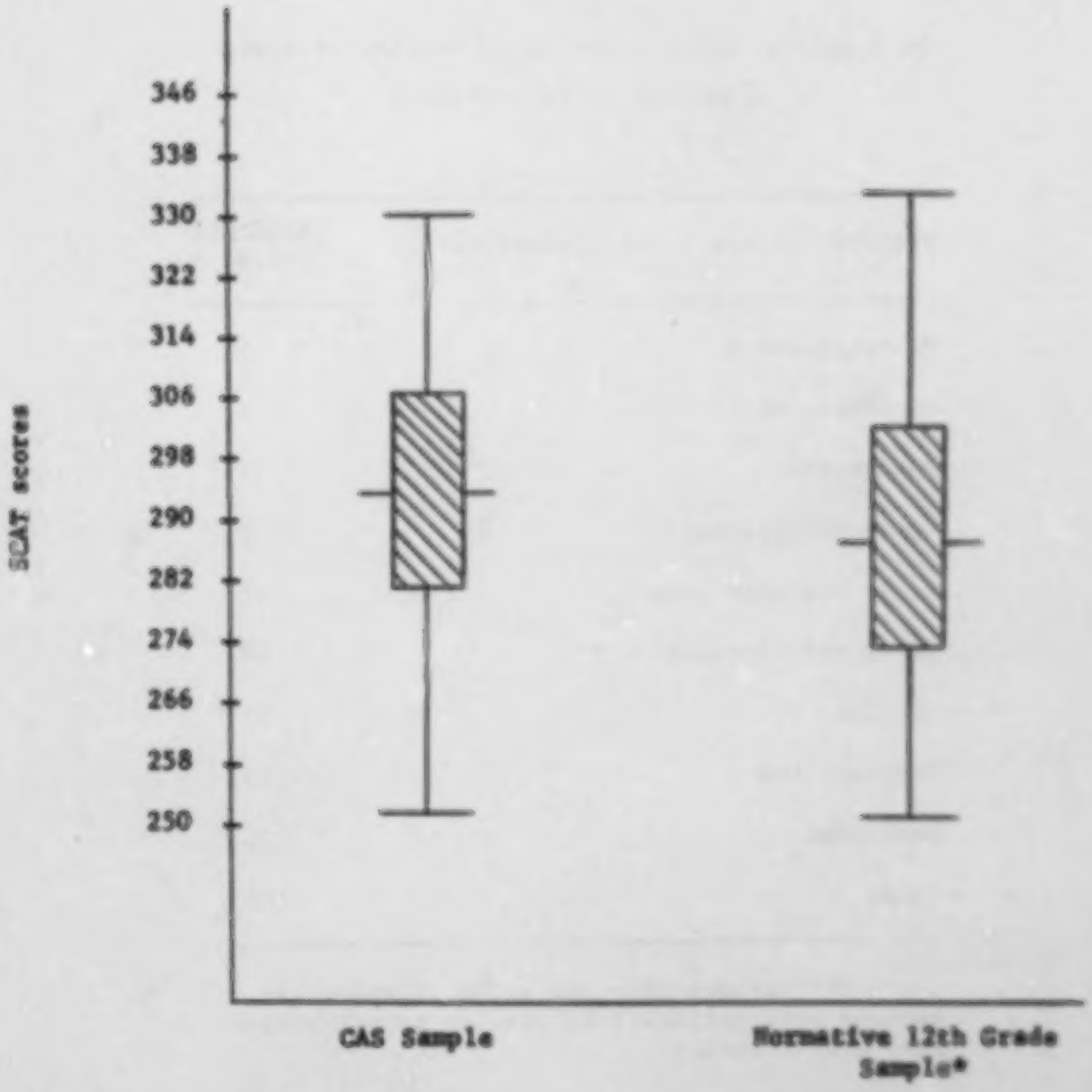
[2] U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of the Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics. U.S. Summary. Final Report PC(1)-10, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1963. Percentages derived from Table 158, p. I-359.

[3] See Appendix B for a report on the procedure used in equating test scores.

[4] J. B. Miner, Intelligence in the United States, Springer Publishing Company, Inc., New York, 1957, p. 28.

Figure 1

Distribution of Equivalent SCAT Scores for 1959 Seniors in the College Attendance Study Compared to SCAT Scores Obtained by Normative Sample of High School Seniors



Mean = 293
Standard deviation = 12
Number = 9,365

Mean = 288
Standard deviation = 14
Number = 2,595

The thin vertical lines represent the ranges of scores for the samples, the midpoints of the shaded areas denote sample means, and the extremes of the shaded areas lie one standard deviation above and below the mean.

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*Examiner's Manual, Cooperative School and College Ability Tests: First Manual, 1955, Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J., 1955.

the seniors' fathers are shown in Table 1.[5] As may be observed, by far the largest percentage (37 per cent) of the fathers were skilled workmen or foremen. It is also significant that almost a fourth of the seniors came from homes in which the father was a semi-skilled or unskilled worker. For some reason the percentage of seniors whose fathers were in the "Professional I" classification (physicians, college professors, engineers, etc.) is slightly higher than those from the "Professional II" category (accountants, teachers, musicians, etc.). However, the two professional groups together constitute only 8 per cent of the total sample. The socioeconomic level of the group, as measured by fathers' occupation, is definitely more heavily weighted at the lower levels.

Table 1

Occupational Classification of Seniors' Fathers

(Reported in Percentages)

Fathers' occupational classification	Students N=8784 *
Professional I	5
Professional II	3
Managerial	7
Semi-professional	2
Small business owner	11
Sales and clerical	12
Skilled	37
Semi-skilled	13
Unskilled	10
Total	100

*Includes only the students whose responses were sufficiently precise to be categorized with accuracy.

In an effort to determine the representativeness of this sample a comparison was made of the fathers' occupations with the occupations of men in the general population. The latter is reported in terms of the U.S. Census classification and, since this exact classification was not used in the study, certain special groupings were necessary for comparative purposes.[6] Figure 2 reflects this comparison and shows the extent to which the data from the sample tend to resemble those of the general population. Substantial variation was found in only two classifications. In the clerical and sales group only 12 per cent of the high school sample fell in this category, whereas in the national sample 21 per

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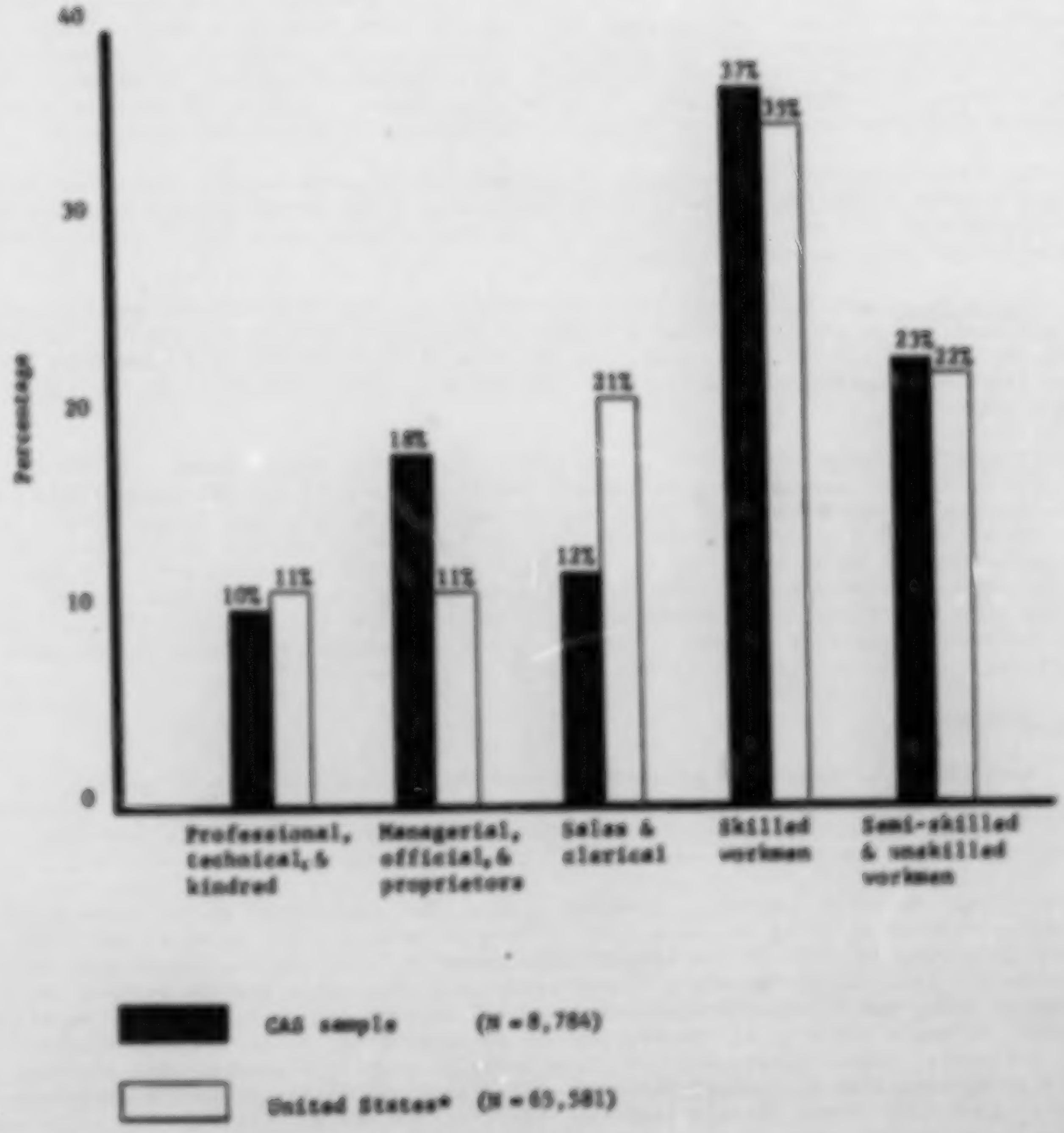
[5] See Appendix C for a discussion of occupational classifications and groupings.

[6] See Appendix C.

Figure 2

Proportion of Seniors' Fathers in Various Occupational Classifications Compared to the U. S. Labor Force, 1959



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*Statistical Abstract of the United States: Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1960. Table 279, p. 216.

cent were in the sales and clerical group. On the other hand, a larger percentage of the seniors (18 per cent) came from homes in the managers and officials group than was true of the national sample (11 per cent). While it has not been possible to account for the variation in these two categories, it is believed that some unidentified characteristics of the particular communities studied may result in somewhat fewer clerical and sales workers and a somewhat greater proportion of managers and officials than would result from a national sample drawn from communities of all sizes. In general, however, the similarity of the distributions indicates that the sample studied is reasonably representative.

Parents' Education. The highest educational attainment of each parent is also of significance in describing an individual's background. Table 2 shows the educational status of the seniors' parents. A few more fathers than mothers of the seniors either finished college or had some college. Even so, only 12 per cent of the fathers had *finished* college and an additional 11 per cent had *some* college. On the other hand, more fathers than mothers had only an elementary school education, while a larger percentage of mothers than of fathers were reported to have high school as their highest educational attainment. Thus the median education remained the same for mothers and fathers, though the fathers as a group tended either to drop below or to exceed the mothers in educational attainment.

The level of parents' educational attainment for subjects in this sample may be compared with certain other data reflecting the educational level of the general population. As may also be seen in Table 2, the parents of the sample under study have a somewhat higher educational level than the general population.

Family Size. The seniors in the sample tended to come from medium-size families. Only 3 per cent had no siblings. Over a fourth of the group had only one sibling, 22 per cent had two, and 14 per cent had three. At the other extreme 21 per cent came from homes in which there were more than five children--one per cent from homes in which there were more than eleven.

Stability of Home. By and large the group represented stable homes. In 86 per cent of the cases both parents were living and for 82 per cent of the seniors the parents were not divorced or separated. At least ten per cent were from broken homes. This percentage, which includes students living with one parent or with neither parent, is comparable to census reports showing that of all children under 18 living with parents, 9.3 per cent lived with only one parent.[7] Of the 8 per cent in the present study who did not answer the question of parents' marital status, 3 per cent had not completed the questionnaire. The other 3 per cent refused to answer, which may suggest that more parents were separated but that the seniors simply did not wish to reveal this fact.

CULTURAL BACKGROUND

In an effort to assess the cultural background and interests of the seniors, questions were asked about such matters as the amount of serious reading by both students and their parents, the number of books owned, practices and preferences with regard to periodical literature, music, and discussion of current events.

Reading. As Table 3 shows, somewhat less than a fourth of either mothers or fathers were reported as doing "quite a lot" of serious reading. The students did even less than their parents; only 13 per cent of them reported doing quite a lot of serious reading. In contrast, approximately a fourth reported little or no serious reading and in this category there was little difference between the seniors and their parents. As might be expected, it was found that of the seniors who reported doing quite a lot of serious reading, a somewhat higher percentage came from homes in which the parents were reported as reading a great deal than from homes in which the parents did little or no such reading. Conversely, many more of the seniors reporting little or no serious reading themselves came from homes in which the parents read little than from homes in which the parents did quite a lot of reading. It should be noted that responses to this item were dependent upon the

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[7] *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1963*, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1963. Percentage derived from 1960 data, Table 82, p. 73.

Table 2

Educational Levels Attained by Seniors' Parents Compared to Levels Attained by a National Sample of Men and Women*

(Reported in Percentages)

Educational level attained	Women		Men	
	Mothers of seniors	National sample: 25 years and older (N=50,437,000)	Fathers of seniors	National sample: 25 years and older (N=47,041,000)
Elementary school: some, or completed	15	34	21	37
High school: some, or completed	59	49	47	41
Some college	10	8	11	8
Finished college; some graduate study	9	6	12	10
No response	7	3	9	4
Total	100	100	100	100

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*Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1961, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1961. Table 138, p. 109.

Table 3

Amount of Serious Reading Done by Seniors and Their Parents

(Reported in Percentages)

Amount of serious reading	Men			Women			Total		
	Seniors	Father	Mother	Seniors	Father	Mother	Seniors	Father	Mother
Quite a lot	14	21	21	16	22	21	15	22	21
Some	55	38	44	56	37	44	56	38	44
Little or none	27	30	22	24	29	26	25	29	24
No response	4	11	13	4	12	9	4	11	11
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

graduates' own interpretations of the phrase "serious reading." No explanations or limits were included in the questionnaire item.

These figures are not atypical for the nation as a whole. Summarizing a number of surveys on adult reading habits, Lester Asheim concluded: "When we say that Americans--by and large--are not readers, we mean that they are not sustained readers of serious content; not that they do not indulge in the simple act of deriving meaning from written symbols." In fact, "active readers seldom make up more than 25 to 30 per cent of any group that reflects, with reasonable accuracy, a cross section of the total population."[8] A survey by the National Opinion Research Center of adult reading habits in 17 cities, made in 1946 for the American Library Association, bears out these statements. In response to a questionnaire, 20 per cent of the respondents indicated that they never read books, and a further 26 per cent read them only occasionally, while 27 per cent had never been in the public library in their city. Less than two hours per week was spent in reading newspapers and magazines by 13 per cent, and in reading books by 63 per cent.[9]

Number of Books Owned. Based on the assumption that ownership of books, particularly on the part of parents, is an index of cultural interest, the seniors were asked to estimate the number of books owned by themselves and by their parents. As is obvious from Table 4, and to be expected, the parents owned more books than the seniors, although only 14 per cent of the parents were reported as owning more than 200 books. Forty-nine per cent of the seniors reported that they owned 10 or fewer books, while only 13 per cent of their parents were reported as owning 10 or fewer. As in the case of reading, book ownership by students was related to book ownership by parents. The more books a student reported his parents owning, the more he reported owning himself.

Table 4

Number of Books Owned by Seniors and Their Parents

(Reported in Percentages)

Number of books owned	Men		Women		Total	
	Seniors	Parents	Seniors	Parents	Seniors	Parents
None	9	1	9	2	9	2
1 - 10	38	9	43	13	40	11
11 - 25	22	14	23	15	22	15
26 - 50	15	20	13	20	14	20
51 - 100	7	19	6	19	6	19
101 - 200	3	16	2	14	3	15
Over 200	2	17	1	13	2	14
No response	4	4	3	4	4	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

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[8] Lester Asheim, "What Do Adults Read?" Adult Reading, Fifty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1956, pp. 7, 8.

[9] What...Where...Why...Do People Read?, National Opinion Research Center Report No. 28, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado, 1946, passim.

Magazines Read. Some interesting insights into the reading habits and preferences of the students and their parents were obtained from an inquiry into the kinds of magazines read.[10] In Table 3 is a summary of the response to a question about the magazines read regularly by both groups. It is apparent that the preponderance of magazine reading for both seniors and parents is of the general interest and digest periodicals. As is to be expected, about two-thirds of the seniors indicated they read magazines of special interest to their own age group. Except for the special interest magazines and pulp magazines, the reported magazine-reading habits of seniors and parents were almost identical. Of significance is the fact that no more than 14 per cent of either group read serious cultural and scientific publications.

Perhaps the fact that only two per cent of the parents are reported to read periodicals of the pulp variety is cause for confidence in the adult population. Even the fact that only 14 per cent of the seniors reported that they read pulp (their doing so does not, of course, mean that they do not read other types) may come as a surprise to certain critics of American youth. However, it must be noted that 20 per cent of the women read pulp magazines, but only 6 per cent of the men. When the students were asked "Which magazine would you miss most if you couldn't get it?" their responses, when categorized by types of magazines, implied preferences which again placed the general interest and digest-type publications in first place with one-third of the group designating this category. Next in order of preference were the special-age-interest publications. There were a few marked differences in preferences between men and women. In addition to the preference for pulp noted above, proportionately many more women than men rated the general interest category first and a few more women than men rated special-age-interest magazines first. On the other hand, 15 per cent of the men gave first place to publications pertaining to sports and athletics whereas this category received no rating by the women. In addition, slightly more men than women, although the proportions are small, reported preferences for news magazines and cultural or scientific magazines.

Table 3

Percentages of Seniors and Parents Who Regularly Read Various Types of Magazines

Magazines	Seniors	Parents
General interest, digests	82	90
Special interest	68	24
News and world affairs	29	28
Sports and athletics	28	27
Pulp	14	2
Serious cultural and scientific	13	14
Religious	3	4
Other	1	2

Music. An assessment was also made of the seniors' preferences in music. As

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[10] See Appendix D for magazines within the categories.

Table 6 shows the group definitely indicated a preference for popular over classical music. In fact, only a fourth of the students reported a great liking for classical music. The major difference between men and women was the fact that considerably more women than men indicated that they liked classical music "very much."

Table 6

Musical Tastes of
High School Seniors

(Reported in percentages)

Musical tastes	Men	Women	Total
Popular music			
Like very much	66	70	68
Like moderately	26	24	24
Like very little	4	3	4
No response	4	3	4
Total	100	100	100
Classical music			
Like very much	20	34	27
Like moderately	47	48	47
Like very little	29	15	22
No response	4	3	4
Total	100	100	100

Discussion of Current Affairs. An interest in national and world affairs was considered another index of cultural background. In an attempt to assess the seniors' interests in this area, they were asked to report on the frequency of their discussion of national and world affairs with friends or family. A fifth of the group reported a daily or almost daily discussion of such affairs. Thirty per cent said they discussed such matters "several times over a period of several weeks," whereas 37 per cent said that over a like period such discussion took place only once or twice. Ten per cent said they had not discussed such matters at all over a like period. The men reported more frequent discussions of these topics than the women. It would seem a sad commentary that, of the total group, about one-half rarely or never discussed current affairs.

It is, of course, one thing merely to summarize cultural characteristics such as the foregoing for the total group but quite another to examine how these characteristics tend to vary among certain subgroups. There were some differences between men and women as indicated by the specific instances cited. The responses of the seniors were analyzed further to determine the relationship of certain cultural interests to socioeconomic level as indicated by the occupation of fathers. As shown in Table 7 a definite relationship was found. In general, the higher the fathers' occupational level, the more likely were the seniors as a group to do more serious reading and to like classical music. Students from homes in higher status levels also showed a strong liking for popular music but not quite to the same extent as those from homes at lower occupational levels. Naturally, a liking for popular music is not to be interpreted as an adverse reflection on the cultural interests of

Table 7

Occupations of Fathers and the Cultural Interests of Seniors

(Reported in Percentages)

Fathers' occupational classification	N	Serious reading					Popular music					Classical music				
		Read quite a lot	Read some	Read little	No response	Total	Like very much	Like moderately	Like very little	No response	Total	Like very much	Like moderately	Like very little	No response	Total
Professional I	401	23	56	20	1	100	62	32	6	-	100	42	41	16	1	100
Professional II	281	23	53	23	1	100	61	33	6	-	100	43	41	16	-	100
Managerial	592	21	53	25	1	100	66	30	4	-	100	35	50	15	-	100
Semi-professional	174	26	50	22	2	100	65	30	4	1	100	33	45	21	1	100
Small business owner	1013	15	56	28	1	100	69	27	4	-	100	32	48	20	-	100
Sales and clerical	1079	14	59	26	1	100	72	24	4	-	100	30	50	20	-	100
Skilled	3250	15	59	24	2	100	71	25	4	-	100	27	50	23	-	100
Semi-skilled	1154	13	57	29	1	100	73	24	3	-	100	23	48	29	-	100
Unskilled	840	10	61	27	2	100	74	22	4	-	100	21	49	30	-	100

a young person. However, an expression of "very little" liking for classical music may be taken as an indication of restricted cultural interests. The data thus suggest that, at least in terms of reading and music appreciation, the seniors from the higher socioeconomic level homes tended to be more catholic in their interest, doubtless reflecting the broader range of opportunity.

RACIAL, RELIGIOUS AND POLITICAL BACKGROUND

Race. The sample is predominantly white, with 91 per cent in this classification. In fact, in response to an optional question on racial background, only 4 per cent indicated that they were Negro, and less than 1 per cent said they were Oriental. The high predominance of Caucasians in this sample is to be expected in view of the fact that no Southern communities and only one large city were included. As reported in the Introduction, an effort was made to select communities comparable on a number of characteristics, including racial and ethnic backgrounds of the population.

Religion. Although 8 per cent did not respond to an optional question concerning religion, those who did showed the group to be predominantly Protestant, with 63 per cent in this category. Exactly a fourth reported they were Roman Catholic, 1 per cent indicated they were Jewish, 2 per cent of no faith, and 1 per cent in an "other" category. Bogue, quoting Current Population Reports for February, 1958, gives the following percentages: Protestant 66.2, Catholic 25.7, Jewish 3.2, No religion 2.7, Other religion 1.3.[11] Evidently the sample was close to national norms, with slight underrepresentation for the Jewish. Again, this is to be expected in view of the size of the communities selected, for the Jewish population tends to center in large urban areas.

When father's occupation was analyzed by religion, interesting differences emerged among religious groups. Not one of the 116 Jews in the sample was an unskilled workman, but Jews were highly represented in the professional, business, and clerical-sales groups. Jewish women, especially, tended to have parents at the professional and managerial levels. Catholics were heavily represented in the workmen classes, and slightly underrepresented in the professions. Orthodox Christian and "other" religions were high in the Professional I class, especially for men.

Father's Political Affiliation. An inquiry concerning the political affiliations of the father was also optional, and since almost a fourth of the group chose not to respond--presumably because they did not know, or felt that the matter was personal--the incomplete data from this item do not reveal an accurate distribution of families among political categories. Of some interest, however, is the fact that 33 per cent indicated that their fathers usually supported the Democratic party and 26 per cent the Republican party, 14 per cent checked "sometimes one, sometimes the other," and 3 per cent checked "neither."

Father's Labor Union Affiliation. Another optional question dealt with the labor union affiliation of the father. Again, there was a large (26 per cent) no-response category, particularly on the part of the women, which suggests that high school girls may not really know whether their father is a labor union member or not. However, 35 per cent of the total group indicated that their father was a union member and 39 per cent indicated that he was not.

HIGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCES

High School Program. Several types of data describe the seniors' high school experiences and are relevant to their later pursuits and success. When asked about the type of program taken in high school, 40 per cent of the group reported they had followed a college preparatory curriculum, 23 per cent a general program, 20 per cent a commercial or business program, and 9 per cent a vocational program other than commerical. There were major differences, however, between men and women. Many more men than women followed vocational, general and college preparatory programs whereas a far greater percentage of the women took a commercial program. It is significant that such a small proportion of the group (14 per cent of the men and 4 per cent of the women) pursued a specific vocational program other than commercial. This apparently reflects a tendency to minimize vocational training as such in high schools and thus to indicate that such training, when necessary, must be given at the post-high school level.

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[11] Donald J. Bogue, *The Population of the United States*, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1959, p. 689.

Liking for High School. Another inquiry sought information on the degree to which the seniors were satisfied with their high school experience. About half said they liked high school very much. However, far more of the women (54 per cent) gave this response than men (39 per cent). Forty per cent of the total group (44 per cent of the men and 36 per cent of the women) said they liked high school "pretty well" and 7 per cent said they neither liked nor disliked it. Only a small percentage of the group indicated a real dislike for high school and to this extent the data are encouraging.

Interesting differences were found, however, in the degree of satisfaction on the part of seniors in different curricula. For example, the seniors with the greatest enthusiasm for high school were those in a college preparatory curriculum. Of these, 61 per cent (69 per cent of the women and 53 per cent of the men) said they liked high school very much, whereas this degree of enthusiasm was expressed by only 46 per cent of those in the commercial program, 36 per cent of those in a general program, and 34 per cent of those in the vocational curriculum. Seniors in the general and vocational programs were, on the whole, the least enthusiastic about high school.

VOCATIONAL PLANS AND ATTITUDES

Vocational Choice. Each senior was asked, "Have you decided, even tentatively, what occupation or vocation you want to enter when you finish schooling? If yes, what kind of work do you want to go into?" The responses were then coded on the same basis as fathers' occupations. Several significant facts are observed in Table 8 which shows the choices of the group by major categories. In the first place, a third of the men either did not respond to the question or said they had not decided on a vocation. The fact that so many young people came out of high school undecided about a vocation may indicate inadequate counseling while in school, but it may also mean that in a complex society a large number of students really do not know at the point of high school graduation what they are going to do, and will continue to need counseling in college or in the community. A second point to be noted is the high preference given to the professions. A fifth of the men indicated a choice in one of the Professional I occupations and another 14 per cent in those at the Professional II level. Approximately a third of the women also indicated a choice in the professional category; however, all but 2 per cent chose the Professional II level which includes teaching and nursing professions. Almost another third of the women indicated a choice in the clerical and sales field whereas this field was selected by only 3 per cent of the men. Only 16 per cent of the men and 4 per cent of the women indicated an interest in the skilled worker classification, and only one per cent of the men and none of the women expressed interest in the semi-skilled or unskilled groups. In a subsequent chapter are reported the activities of this same group in the fall following graduation and the data there will confirm what might be suspected, namely, that many preliminary choices are unrealistic.

Parents' Concern. An inquiry was also made into the concern of both parents for the vocational plans of their sons and daughters. Each senior was asked the question: "Does it matter much to your parents what kind of work you go into?" About half the students said their parents "cared very much" about their occupational plans but the data showed somewhat greater concern on the part of the mothers than fathers. Fifty-three per cent of the mothers were thought to "care very much" but only 45 per cent of the fathers were placed in this category. Slightly less than a third of the parents were reported to "care some" and slightly less than 10 per cent to care not at all. Another question probed into the relationship between concern on the part of one parent and that of the other. Apparently the degree of concern tends to be mutual on the part of both parents. For all the fathers who were reported to "care very much" about their child's vocational plans, 73 per cent of the mothers were reported to care to the same degree. Likewise, for the fathers who "cared some," 68 per cent of the mothers did the same, and the fathers who did not care at all were

Table 8

Vocational Choices of Seniors

(Reported in Percentages)

Vocational classification	Men	Women	Total
Professional I	20	2	11
Professional II	14	31	23
Managerial	3	1	2
Semi-professional	7	8	7
Small business owner	1	-	1
Sales and clerical	3	31	17
Skilled	16	4	10
Semi- and unskilled	1	-	1
Housewife; no response; don't know	35	23	28
Total	100	100	100

matched by 65 per cent of the mothers.

It might be hypothesized that parental concern for a child's vocational decision would have a bearing on the time of making the decision, and that the greater the concern the earlier the decision. However, an analysis of the data did not entirely support such a premise. The point at which students made their decision seemed to have no relationship to parental concern, with one exception. When the fathers were thought not to care, 24 per cent of the seniors had not yet made a decision, as opposed to 13 per cent when the fathers were thought to care very much.

Another dimension of parental concern is the relationship between the degree of parental concern about vocational choice and the father's occupational level. An analysis of this relationship was made by grouping the fathers' occupation according to high, middle, and low levels[12] and then determining the degree of concern on the part of each group for the vocational choice of the graduates. It may be seen from Table 9 that more fathers in the high occupational levels than in the low level were reported as greatly concerned. However, the differences were not great, especially when the two positive responses were combined.

Table 9

Fathers' Occupational Levels and Concern for Vocational Choices of Seniors

(Reported in Percentages)

Fathers' concern for vocational choice	Level of fathers' occupation		
	High N=1274	Middle N=5516	Low N=1994
Very much	52	49	42
Some	31	32	36
Indifferent	8	10	13
Parent deceased or out of contact	6	5	5
No response	3	4	4
Total	100	100	100

Type of Organization Preferred. As a further probe into the occupational desires of the group, each senior was asked to indicate the kind of firm, organization, or situation in which he would like best to work after finishing his schooling or military service. As Table 10 shows, there were major differences between the preferences of men and women, most of them understandable. The men were much more prone to prefer their own business or to work for a large firm or corporation while the women were more inclined toward a school or college, a small business, or a hospital. The fact that only 19 per cent of the women checked homemaker--a seemingly unrealistic response--may simply indicate that many of them checked the setting in which they preferred to work before they were married. In any event, more of the seniors indicated a preference for employment in a large firm or corporation than in any other type of setting. In still another question the seniors were asked to indicate which of the same settings they expected they would end up working in, regardless of preference. The major differences between preference and expectation were that many more of the men (37 per cent) said they would probably end up in a large firm or corporation and many more of the women (30 per cent) said they would probably become homemakers.

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[12] See Appendix C for explanation of these levels.

Table 10

Occupational Settings Preferred by Seniors

(Reported in Percentages)

Preferred occupational setting	Men	Women	Total
Own business (including farm)	27	6	16
Own professional office	9	3	6
Small business or office owned by another	6	13	10
School or college	8	15	11
Government bureau	5	4	5
Military organization	6	1	3
Large firm or corporation	29	16	23
Hospital or other public health agency	2	15	9
Homemaker	-	19	10
Other	3	2	2
No response	5	6	5
Total	100	100	100

Importance of Getting Ahead. In an attempt to assess the ambitions and motivations of the seniors, several questions were asked them regarding their attitudes toward getting ahead, their expected standard of living, and their expected income at age 40.

One question simply posed the matter of how important it was to each senior personally to strive to get ahead in life, compared to living a relaxed life. Over half the group said that getting ahead was "much more important" and over a third said it was "somewhat more important." Only one per cent said that getting ahead was less important, though seven per cent said it was no more important. Apparently, this group of young people in today's society was prone to place great value on success as measured by "getting ahead," whatever significance this term may have had for them.

Expected Standard of Living. Another query concerned the seniors' expected future standard of living as compared with their parents' current living standard. As shown in Table 11, approximately a fifth of the group said they expected their future living standard to be "much higher" than their parents' current standard. Perhaps somewhat more realistically, 43 per cent thought their own standard would be "a little higher." The men were more ambitious (or unrealistic) in this respect than the women.

Although there was a close relationship between the expectations of the seniors and the occupational levels of their fathers, there was a greater tendency for students from lower socioeconomic homes to expect a higher standard of living relative to their parents than for students from homes in higher socioeconomic levels.

Table 11

Seniors' Expected Standard of Living Compared to
Parents' Current Standard of Living

(Reported in Percentages)

Expected standard of living compared to parents' current standard of living	Men	Women	Total
Much higher	28	14	21
A little higher	45	42	43
Same	21	35	28
A little lower	3	5	4
Much lower	-	1	1
No response	3	3	3
Total	100	100	100

Expected Income. An additional measure of ambition is the seniors' estimates of their income at age 40. Admittedly a question on such a matter is subject to a certain amount of star-gazing, as well as to difficulty in projecting dollar values twenty or more years ahead. However, if the responses are merely considered as an additional index of ambition, they may be helpful in assessing this dimension of today's high school senior. As Table 12 shows, the seniors were generally conservative in the projection of their income. As might be expected, the sights of high school men were higher than those of women. Since the majority of the women may be expected to be married by age 40 (though perhaps also working), the men's projection may be a better index of ambition than the women's.

The income ambition was also cross-analyzed with ability level. While there was some relationship between ability and expected income, a degree of unrealism was apparent, if it can be assumed that ability is an important factor in earning power. Again, the analysis is perhaps more realistic when only the men are considered. There is a tendency for men in the highest quintile to expect somewhat larger incomes and for those in the lowest-ability group to expect lower incomes. Even so, 11 per cent of the lowest-ability group predicted salaries in excess of $15,000.

COLLEGE PLANS

Intention to Attend College. Table 13 shows the college attendance plans of the group. Over half the group said they planned to enter college immediately after high school. In the following chapter it will be seen that a large percentage of seniors who said that they were going to enter college actually did so.

Estimate of Ability for College Work. Among the questions which probed further into the seniors' college plans was one which asked them to indicate whether, in their judgment, they had the ability to do college work. On this point the seniors were confident.

Table 12

Seniors' Expected Income at Age 40

(Reported in Percentages)

Expected income at age 40	Men	Women	Total
Less than $3,000	1	5	3
$3,000 - $5,000	8	22	15
$5,000 - $7,500	24	31	28
$7,500 - $10,000	27	20	23
$10,000 - $15,000	20	9	14
$15,000 - $20,000	9	3	6
Over $20,000	7	1	4
No response	4	9	7
Total	100	100	100

Table 13

Seniors' College Attendance Plans

(Reported in Percentages)

College attendance plans	Men	Women	Total
Directly after high school	54	49	52
After military service	12	-	6
Not planning college	29	47	38
Not sure; no response	5	4	4
Total	100	100	100

Almost half said they probably had the ability and a fourth said they definitely had. Only 11 per cent said they probably or definitely could not do college work. When these responses were related to the ability groupings of the seniors, some relationship between confidence and ability was observed, but even so over half the seniors in the lowest ability quintile said that they either definitely or probably had the ability to do college work. The fact that 9 per cent of top-ability students were uncertain as to whether they had the ability to do college work is indicative of a possible source of loss of talent.

Main Reason for Possibly Not Attending College. The seniors were then asked; "If it turns out you do not go to college, what do you think will be the main reason?" Table 14 shows the percentage distribution of responses to this question. Predictably, lack of money and a preference for work were the reasons given by nearly half the group. Also to be expected was the fact that preference for marriage was the reason given by nearly one-fifth of the women. Lack of interest in college was the reason for possibly not attending given by 18 per cent of the men and 14 per cent of the women. Lack of ability or poor grades were reasons given by only 15 per cent of the graduates, and family opposition was reported by only 1 per cent of the men and women.

Table 14

Seniors' Main Reasons for Possibly
Not Attending College

(Reported in Percentages)

Main reason for possibly not attending college	Men	Women	Total
Poor high school grades, ability	21	10	15
Not enough money	32	29	30
Prefer to work	14	19	17
Prefer marriage	3	19	11
Not interested enough	18	14	16
Family opposition	1	1	1
Health of self or family	1	1	1
Military service	1	-	1
Other	3	2	2
No answer	6	5	6
Total	100	100	100

SUMMARY

In Chapter I are data on the general characteristics of a large sample of high school seniors as they approach graduation, with some comparisons between this sample and the general population. The seniors were found to be like the general population in sex distribution (slightly more women than men), in mental ability, in occupational levels of fathers (except that more of the seniors' fathers were in managerial positions), in reading habits (serious readers were relatively few), and religious affiliation (except that the Jewish population was underrepresented in comparison with national figures). Non-Caucasian races are underrepresented in comparison with the general population. This difference, and those of religion and fathers' occupations, were ascribed to the fact that the sample was purposely drawn from comparable communities of moderate size.

Additional findings helped to complete the profile of the seniors. Among periodicals, the seniors' preferences were for general interest and digest magazines, and special-age-interest periodicals. Nearly half the seniors reported that they rarely or never discussed current affairs. The seniors' musical tastes ran heavily, but not exclusively, toward popular music. In categories where students reported parents' cultural interests there was, not unexpectedly, a positive relationship between parents' and children's interests. Political and labor union affiliations of parents were investigated, but a high level of "no response" or "don't know" responses rendered results inconclusive. Most of the seniors came from homes in which the parents were not divorced or separated, and nearly all had at least one sibling.

A large majority of the seniors in the sample had been enrolled in college preparatory or general high school curricula, with only a third in all types of vocational curricula. About half the seniors had no strong liking or disliking for their high school experience. Those in college preparatory programs tended to like high school best, while those in general and vocational programs had the least liking for high school.

A large minority of the seniors had not made vocational choices. Of those who had, some were estimated to have made choices unrealistic in terms of their measured abilities. Parents generally were reported as concerned about their children's occupational choices, with the degree of concern positively related to the father's occupational level. The seniors indicated that "getting ahead" is of major importance, but a majority were nonetheless rather conservative in estimating their future income and standard of living. There was a wide variety of occupational settings preferred.

More than half the seniors reported that they intended to go to college, but this group included more than half the students in the lowest ability quintile, while it excluded a sizeable number of those in the highest ability quintile. Similarly, seniors' estimates of their ability to do college work did not always coincide with measured abilities. Nearly one-half the seniors gave "lack of money" or "preference for work" as the main reason for their possibly not attending college.

Because certain attributes are common to large subgroups of the students under study, it is perhaps natural to characterize seniors as a whole in terms of these dominant characteristics. To do so would, however, be misleading, for the variations among the characteristics of seniors may be more important than the similarities. Young persons seek employment of many kinds, and seek admission to various types of educational institutions. When they do, it is not en masse, but as individuals. It is important, then, that those who assess and work with these young men and women refrain from gross generalizations which characterize seniors or graduates as a whole. The following chapters of this report will be concerned with the characteristics of particular subgroups of graduates, and with the relationships between these characteristics and the members' later pursuits and performance.

CHAPTER II

WHAT THEY DID AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

Quite aside from the matter of who should go to college is the interesting question of what actually happens, in terms of their major pursuits, to high school graudates in the year following graduation. Do they go to college? What do they do if they do not continue their education? The concern is more than a mere inquiry into the gross number who follow certain activities; it is important to know *which* graduates do what. Are there fundamental differences in the backgrounds and personal characteristics of boys who enter employment or military service as compared with those who enter college, even when the ability factor is controlled? Do graduates who are unemployed differ materially from those who go to work or who continue their education? Are girls who marry and at least temporarily become full-time housewives different from those who follow other pursuits, married or not? These and other questions like them need answers, if insights are to be gained into the factors related to the major activities of young people just out of high school.

In this chapter data are presented which not only indicate the gross distribution of the graduates studied, but which also depict some of the basic characteristics of those who followed various pursuits. The analyses are based upon a follow-up study of the graduates, conducted in the fall following their graduation, as explained in the Introduction.

Table 15

Pursuits of 9778 Spring, 1959 High School Graduates

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Men	Women	Total
College	50	37	43
Special school	2	10	7
Employed	29	39	34
Unemployed	5	7	6
Military service	14	-	7
Housewife	-	7	3
Total	100	100	100

PURSUITS FOLLOWED--BY SEX

Table 15 shows the distribution of the total group, by sex, among categories of activities in the autumn following graduation. Forty-three per cent of the graduates entered a bona-fide college, and another 7 per cent entered special schools, so that 50 per cent of the total sample continued their education[1]--a figure which corresponds with the 46 per cent reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as the percentage of 1959 graduates throughout the nation who continued their education.[2] It is apparent that, although more men than women entered college (50 per cent of the men and 37 per cent of the women), more women entered special schools, thus resulting in only a slight difference in the percentage of each sex which continued in school. Approximately a third of the group--more women than men--entered employment. Fourteen per cent of the men went directly into military service. Six per cent of the total group was unemployed, or 12 per cent of the "labor force" which, by the standard U.S. census definition includes people who are employed, unemployed and in the military service, in contrast to the "experienced civilian labor force." The same proportion of 12 per cent unemployed was reported for ages 14 to 19 in the national census statistics for 1959.[3] The proportion of homemakers was small but did not include the employed women who were married.

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[1] Colleges are accredited colleges listed in the United States Office of Education Directory for 1959. Special schools are not listed in the Education Directory. They include nursing, beauty, vocational, and Bible schools.

ABILITY AND RANK IN CLASS

As may be observed in Table 16, ability was an important factor in identifying the graduates who followed certain pursuits after high school. As would be expected, more of the high-ability graduates went to college while more of those with lower ability entered employment. Even so, 31 per cent of the graduates falling in the top fifth of the ability scale did not enter college and, allowing for those who entered special schools, 26 per cent did not continue their education at all. The data are naturally more significant when examined separately for men and women. For example, whereas almost three-fourths of the men in the highest ability quintile went to college, less than two-thirds of the women at this ability level went. Twenty-two per cent of the women as compared to only 14 per cent of the men in the highest quintile entered employment. Although eight per cent of the men in the top quintile entered military service, the percentage of men entering the service increased with each declining ability quintile.

These data make possible a number of interesting comparisons with those derived from other studies on college attendance of high-ability students. Wolfle's[4] finding that only 48 per cent of high school graduates in the top 30 per cent of the ability range enter college has been a basis for many statements concerning the high loss of talent among American youth. Bridgman[5] regards Wolfle's statement as an underestimate. His figures of 75 to 80 per cent for boys and 55 per cent for girls in the top 30 per cent ability level are closer to the 70 and 57 per cent obtained in the study here reported.

The data concerning 1959 graduates also are in general agreement with Flanagan's[6] findings regarding the ability distribution among college-attending and non-college-attending high school graduates of 1960. College Attendance Study data indicate that the composition of the college group from the highest to the lowest quintile was 36, 21, 18, 13, and 9 per cent respectively.[7] The comparable distribution reported by Flanagan was 42, 28, 16, 9, and 5 per cent. The ability distribution among the non-college group, from highest to lowest quintile, was 12, 17, 20, 21, and 25 per cent for the College Attendance Study;[7] 9, 19, 24, 25, and 23 per cent for the Flanagan study. The major differences between the two distribu-

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[2] Sophia Cooper, "Employment of June 1959 High School Graduates, October, 1959," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 83, May, 1960, p. 501, Table 1.

[3] Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1961, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1961. Percentage derived from Tables 269 and 271, pp. 204, 205.

[4] Dael Wolfle, America's Resources of Specialized Talent, Harper & Bros., New York, 1954, p. 314.

[5] Donald S. Bridgman, "Where the Loss of Talent Occurs and Why." Reprinted from College Admission 7: The Search for Talent, College Board, 1960, p. 30.

[6] John C. Flanagan, et al., Project Talent: The American High School Student, University of Pittsburgh, 1964. Derived from Table 11-5.

[7] These distributions do not total to 100 per cent because ability scores were not available for 3 per cent of the college group and 5 per cent of the non-college group.

Table 16

Pursuits of Graduates by Ability (SCAT) Quintiles

(Reported in percentages)

Pursuit	Ability quintiles*					
	I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No score available
College	69	49	40	31	22	33
Special school	5	6	8	6	7	9
Employed	18	31	36	43	47	34
Unemployed	2	4	5	7	11	8
Military service	5	7	7	8	8	10
Housewife	1	3	4	5	5	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

*The quintile distribution was determined by combining the decile scores originally computed for the array of equivalent SCAT scores obtained by the sample. However, the SCAT scores are integral numbers whereas the decile scores in this case were decimal numbers. For example, the seventh decile was found to be 285.75 instead of 286. Consequently, the decimal values were rounded to the nearest integral number in the manner recommended by Guilford (J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1942, p. 71). Often the number of subjects having the same integral score was large, thus the rounding of a decimal score to an integral caused an unequal distribution of subjects across deciles, which was heightened when the decile groups were combined into quintiles. The resulting quintile N's were I, 2188; II, 1837; III, 1844; IV, 1712; V, 1788. While there is a slightly uneven distribution of cases with the result that each quintile does not represent an exact 20 per cent of the total sample, the quintile is used in this report as a means of grouping and reporting the individuals with like scores.

tions are probably due to differences in ability measures used, and to differences in the samples. It should be noted, for example, that in the junior college communities included in the present study the college attendance rate of lower-ability students was higher than was the rate in communities with other types of colleges. The effect of this higher rate among lower-ability students is to reduce the apparent attendance rate among higher-ability students, for as lower-ability students constitute a large proportion of all college students, the higher-ability students necessarily constitute a smaller proportion of all college students. Since the Flanagan study was of students who graduated a year later than the students here reported on, the differences between the two sets of findings may also be in some part a reflection of the increasing likelihood that high-ability students will attend college.[8]

SCAT scores of the group which entered college were also compared with equivalent scores on the same test of a large group of entering college students in 1952. The latter group was from a study completed by the Center for the Study of Higher Education at Berkeley of a nationwide stratified random sample of entering students in 200 colleges. Figure 3 permits a comparison of the two groups. It is apparent that although the upper range of students in the "200 Study" scored somewhat higher, the two groups were very similar, with the mean for the CAS group being two points higher than that of the other group. The fact that the ability level of the college-going sample so closely resembles college freshmen in general naturally has implications for evaluating their performance in college. This subject is explored later in Chapter IV.

Data were also compiled according to the graduates' rank in class. Approximately 80 per cent of those who ranked in the top ten per cent of their graduating classes proceeded to college. This finding replicates that of Milholland, Womer, and Walker who surveyed all Michigan high school graduates of 1960.[9] However, this proportion is considerably higher than the attendance rate of 65 per cent which Wright and Jung found in their study of the upper ten per cent of the 1955 graduates of Indiana high schools.[10] Table 17 shows the percentage of college-going students within each quintile for high school rank. Twenty-seven per cent of the top quintile did not continue their education in college. The percentage of graduates from the second and third quintiles not going to college is much higher.

SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF FAMILY

Father's Occupation as Related to Post-High School Pursuits. The study here reported, like many previous studies, discovered a close association between college attendance and father's occupation. Table 18 shows that more than 70 per cent of fathers in the top three occupational categories sent their children to college, whereas in the middle three occupational categories, only slightly more than half of the children went and in the lowest categories only about a third. Only slight differences in college attendance were apparent between graduates with fathers at the Professional II and managerial levels. The same was true among those with fathers in the semi-skilled and unskilled groups. On the other hand, a much larger discrepancy was found between the sales-clerical categories and the skilled workmen categories, even though the incomes at these two levels may be similar. These two facts suggest that the decision to attend college may often be the result of ideological and attitudinal factors (the values of the occupational group) rather than the income derived from the father's occupation.

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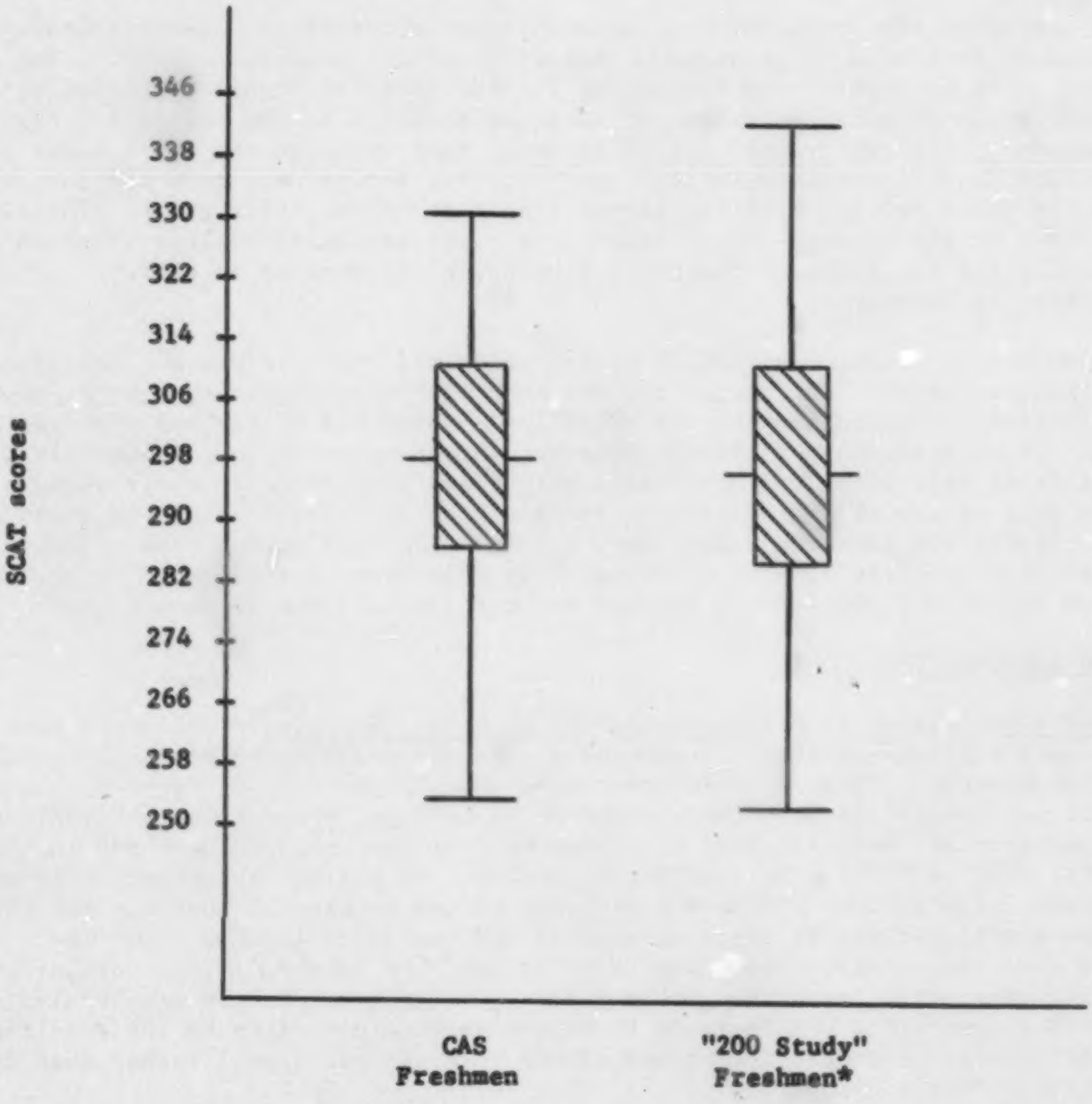
[8] Richard Pearson documented this trend among high-ability students in "Admission to College Under Conditions of Abundant Educational Opportunity," a paper presented at the Puerto Rico Conference on the Implications of Universal Higher Education, conducted under the auspices of the Institute of Higher Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, Dorado, Puerto Rico, November 15-21, 1964. (Mimeographed)

[9] John E. Milholland, Frank B. Womer and Howard Walker, "College Enrollments of the Highest Ten Per Cent of Michigan High School Graduates, 1960," College and University, Fall, 1963, Vol. 39, No. 1, pp. 64-71.

[10] Wendell W. Wright and Christian W. Jung, Why Capable High School Students Do Not Continue Their Schooling, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, January, 1959, Vol. 35, No. 1, p. 4.

Figure 3

Comparison of the Distribution of Equivalent SCAT Scores Obtained by Entering College Freshmen in the College Attendance Study and in the "200 Study"



Mean = 298	Mean = 296
Standard deviation = 11.3	Standard deviation = 12.5
Number = 4,066	Number = 60,539

The vertical lines represent the range of scores for the samples, the midpoints of the shaded areas denote the sample means, and the extremes of the shaded areas lie one standard deviation above and below the mean.

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*Distribution for this study derived from data used in preparation of: John G. Darley, Promise and Performance: A Study of Ability and Achievement in Higher Education, Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, Berkeley, 1962.

Table 17

Pursuits of Graduates by Rank in Class
(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Rank in class quintiles*					
	I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No rank available
College	73	55	40	28	18	32
Special school	8	7	6	7	5	4
Employed	15	28	37	42	47	45
Unemployed	1	4	6	8	12	7
Military service	1	3	6	10	15	8
Housewife	2	3	5	5	3	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

*Rank in class quintile N's are I, 1933; II, 1905; III, 1841; IV, 1786; V, 1568. See note, Table 16, for method used in determining quintile distribution.

The effects of fathers' occupational level was apparent for both men and women, with the percentage of college-attending graduates lower for women than for men at each occupational level, as would be expected. The range of differences between extreme levels was somewhat greater for women. The highest percentage of college attendance among women was 76 per cent at the Professional I level; the lowest was 23 per cent which was at both the semi-skilled and unskilled levels. For men, the highest percentage was 80 per cent at the Professional I and II levels, while the lowest was 34 per cent at both the semi-skilled and unskilled levels. These findings are in general agreement with those of Stice, Mollenkopf, and Torgerson[11] who studied the college plans of high-aptitude seniors, and found that 83 per cent of the men and 84 per cent of the women whose fathers were in the medical profession (included in CAS Professional I level) were planning to enter college immediately after high school, but that only 28 per cent of the senior men and 21 [illegible] cent of the women whose fathers were in semi-skilled occupations were planning to ent[illegible] college immediately after high school.

In the study here reported, college attendance was even more closely related to father's occupation than to ability level. Table 19 shows that the majority of students from high occupational groups entered college regardless of ability level. Within the upper 40 per cent of the ability distribution, the comparative figures are 84 per cent of students from the high occupational group, 59 per cent from the middle, and 41 per cent from the low. The anomaly is emphasized by the greater proportion of low-ability students

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[11] Glen Stice, et al., Background Factors and College-Going Plans Among High-Aptitude Public High School Seniors, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1956.

Table 18

Pursuits of Graduates by Occupation of Father

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Fathers' occupational classification								
	Profes-sional I	Profes-sional II	Managerial	Semi-pro-fessional	Small business owner	Sales and clerical	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled
	N=401	N=281	N=592	N=174	N=1013	N=1079	N=3250	N=1154	N=840
College	78	73	72	50	55	52	37	28	28
Special school	6	4	5	7	7	7	7	7	8
Employed	9	16	15	29	27	28	38	44	42
Unemployed	2	1	2	4	4	3	7	8	8
Military service	4	3	4	6	4	7	7	9	9
Housewife	1	3	2	4	3	3	4	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 19

Pursuits of Graduates by Ability Groups
and Fathers' Occupational Levels

(Reported in Percentages)

Graduates' ability quintile and fathers' occupational level	N	Pursuit			
		College	Special school	Other	Total
Ability quintiles I and II (upper 40%)					
High occupational level	740	84	3	13	100
Middle occupational level	2375	59	6	35	100
Low occupational level	634	41	8	51	100
Ability quintile III (middle 20%)					
High occupational level	223	67	6	27	100
Middle occupational level	1079	42	9	49	100
Low occupational level	372	26	7	67	100
Ability quintiles IV and V (lower 40%)					
High occupational level	256	57	6	37	100
Middle occupational level	1852	26	6	68	100
Low occupational level	897	20	7	73	100

from professional homes (57 per cent) attending college than of high-ability students from lower occupational homes (41 per cent).

Regardless of ability or fathers' occupation, more men than women went to college. However, the magnitude of the sex difference does vary by the type of home a student comes from, as would be expected from the preceding paragraph. The biggest differences in college attendance occurred under three conditions. First, proportionately more men than women entered college who came from professional or managerial homes and were in the lowest 40 per cent of the ability distribution, suggesting that when ability for college was questionable, fewer women than men were sent to college, even if from high socioeconomic backgrounds. Secondly, sex differences occurred when students were in the top of the ability distribution and came from low socioeconomic homes, which suggest that when college ability was relatively assured but funds were limited far more men than women were sent to college. The third condition leading to sex differences in college attendance showed the pervasiveness of these differences since regardless of ability, far more men than women from middle occupational level homes entered college. The study following this one will discuss the attitudes of students and their parents toward education and higher education in particular. The sex differences, coupled with the differences by fathers' occupation, often regardless of ability, suggest the strong need to delve into the attitudes and values of the families in studying college attendance.

Parents' Education. Tables 20 and 21 reveal the strong association which exists between the educational level of one or both parents and college attendance. The differences among college attendance rates of graduates, by parents' educational level, proved to be significant when tested statistically. The overall picture is similar for both mothers and fathers. Of the graduates who went to college, 32 per cent of their mothers and 36 per cent of their fathers had received at least some college education (when categories are combined). By contrast, these figures were 8 per cent and 11 per cent respectively for all graduates who did not enter college or special school. Few sex differences were apparent, although women tended to be somewhat less affected than men by the mother's educational level.

Table 22 shows the various pursuits of high school graduates categorized by father's occupation and mother's education. The results of this analysis strongly suggest that a mother's education is at least as important as a father's occupation in affecting the decision to go to college. At all occupational levels, far more students attended college if their mothers had gone to college for any length of time in contrast to students whose mothers had only a high school education or less. The discrepancy is smaller at the lower occupational level, but generally speaking, the more education the mother had, the more likely it was that her children entered college. In other analyses it was found that fewer women than men whose mothers had not gone beyond high school actually attended college. On the other hand, men and women attended college in nearly equal proportions if their mothers had completed college, regardless of the father's occupational level. For example, when the mothers had completed college, 87 per cent of both the men and the women at the high occupational level entered college; at the low occupational level 53 per cent of the men and 55 per cent of the women entered college. It is interesting that mothers who did not finish their own college education sent more sons than daughters to college. For example, from high socioeconomic homes when mothers did not complete their college education, 90 per cent of the men and 79 per cent of the women went to college; from low occupational homes 55 per cent of the men compared to 41 per cent of the women went to college. Proportionately fewer men with fathers at the professional level entered military service, especially where the mothers had a college education.

Mother's Employment. Table 23 shows the percentages of mothers who were in full- or part-time employment while the graduates were still in high school. Although 40 per cent of the sample reported mothers who were working, the overall figures suggest that mother's employment has little or no effect upon the graduate's decision to attend college.

Family Size. Although the two-child family was the most common unit in the sample, with three-child families second, it is evident from Table 24 that the one-child family had the highest percentage of children who went to college. However, high percentages from families with two and three children also went. More graduates from the larger families went into employment than into college. Obviously, the relative number of families in the various size categories meant that in absolute numbers more college students come from two- and three-child families.

Stability of Home. The absence of either parent from the home, for any reason, appears to have a deleterious effect on college-going. The data show that when the mother only was living, fewer students went to college, and more were employed. When the father

Table 20

Pursuits of Graduates by Educational Level Attained by Mother (Reported in Percentages)

		Education of mother								
Pursuit	N*	Graduate school	Finished college	Some college	Finished high school	Some high school	Finished grade school	Some grade school	No response	Total
College	4206	4	12	16	38	15	7	2	6	100
Special school	637	2	6	8	35	25	13	4	7	100
Employed	3337	1	2	6	35	28	14	6	8	100
Unemployed	569	1	1	3	30	32	12	10	11	100
Military service	679	1	5	5	38	26	12	5	8	100
Housewife	350	1	3	8	34	25	13	6	10	100

*Unless otherwise indicated, the numbers for tables used in this chapter are those given here.

Table 21

Pursuits of Graduates by Educational Level Attained by Father (Reported in Percentages)

	Education of father								
Pursuit	Graduate school	Finished college	Some college	Finished high school	Some high school	Finished grade school	Some grade school	No response	Total
College	9	11	16	26	16	10	5	7	100
Special school	4	6	11	25	23	13	9	9	100
Employed	2	2	6	26	24	17	11	12	100
Unemployed	1	2	4	22	29	14	15	13	100
Military service	2	4	9	23	27	14	11	10	100
Housewife	3	5	8	22	23	14	11	14	100

Table 22

Pursuits of Graduates by Occupational Level Of Fathers and Education of Mothers

(Reported in Percentages)

Occupational level of father and education of mother	N	Pursuit						
		College	Special school	Em-ployed	Unem-ployed	Mil-itary service	House-wife	Total
High occupational level								
Education of mother								
Elementary school: some, or completed	32	44	6	41	3	6	-	100
High school: some, or completed	547	62	5	20	3	7	3	100
Some college	268	84	4	8	-	1	3	100
Completed college	403	87	5	6	-	2	-	100
No response	24	54	4	17	12	13	-	100
Total	1274	74	5	13	2	4	2	100
Middle occupational level								
Education of mother								
Elementary school: some, or completed	788	27	7	47	9	6	4	100
High school: some, or completed	3573	41	7	36	5	7	4	100
Some college	581	66	6	20	2	4	2	100
Completed college	384	70	7	13	2	6	2	100
No response	190	36	6	33	9	11	5	100
Total	5516	44	7	34	5	7	3	100
Low occupational level								
Education of mother								
Elementary school: some, or completed	497	24	9	44	9	8	6	100
High school: some, or completed	1240	28	7	44	8	10	3	100
Some college	103	46	7	33	2	6	6	100
Completed college	57	54	7	26	-	9	4	100
No response	97	19	4	50	11	8	8	100
Total	1994	28	8	43	8	9	4	100

Table 23

Pursuits of Graduates by Mothers' Employment

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Mothers' employment				
	Full-time work	Part-time work	Not working	No response	Total
College	25	14	56	5	100
Special school	27	13	55	5	100
Employed	28	13	54	5	100
Unemployed	24	13	58	5	100
Military service	30	12	52	6	100
Housewife	29	12	52	7	100

Table 24

Pursuits of Graduates by Size of Family

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Total number of children in family								
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six to eight	Nine to eleven	Over eleven	Undesig-nated; no response
	N=449	N=2558	N=2176	N=1384	N=799	N=915	N=248	N=61	N=1188
College	60	53	45	37	33	26	27	30	44
Special school	5	7	6	6	7	7	8	2	7
Employed	24	28	33	38	41	46	47	34	32
Unemployed	2	3	6	7	8	7	11	21	6
Military service	6	6	7	8	7	8	4	11	8
Housewife	3	3	3	4	4	6	3	2	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

only was living, the picture was similar, but more students went into military service and homemaking, or were unemployed.

Graduates whose parents were divorced or separated generally did not continue their education. The college group had the lowest incidence of parental divorce or separation (7 per cent) compared to the employed graduates (12 per cent) and particularly compared to the homemakers (21 per cent). The few women in military service frequently came from homes in which the parents were divorced or in which the father was deceased.

RELIGIOUS AND POLITICAL BACKGROUND

Religious Background. Religious background of graduates was also considered in relation to pursuits (Table 25). The Jewish group had the highest percentage attending college (84 per cent), and this group contained as many women as men. Conversely, the Jewish group had the lowest proportion of unemployed. The Protestant group showed a distribution similar to that of the total sample, but proportionately fewer Catholics entered college and more entered employment or special schools than was true for the other graduates. Sixty-six per cent of all Catholics, and almost three-quarters of the Catholic women, did not attend college. Although in general women are less likely than men to attend college, if a generalization can be made from this sample, Protestant women are more likely to go to college than are Catholic men.

Table 25

Pursuits of Graduates by Religion

(Reported in Percentages)

	Religion							
Pursuit	Protestant	Roman Catholic	Jewish	Other	None	Combination	Orthodox Christian	No response
	N=6127	N=2400	N=120	N=52	N=209	N=40	N=46	N=784
College	46	34	84	62	45	20	57	36
Special school	6	9	3	4	3	5	6	5
Employed	31	42	9	11	30	47	22	38
Unemployed	6	6	1	6	7	15	9	8
Military service	7	7	3	17	13	13	6	9
Housewife	4	2	-	-	2	-	-	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Political Affiliation of Father. In analyzing the relationship of the father's political affiliation to what graduates did after high school it was found that, on the basis of the graduates who indicated their father's affiliation, the college group had many more fathers who were Republicans (34 per cent) than fathers who were Democrats (29 per cent). Stated in another dimension, of all the graduates whose fathers were Republicans 56 per cent went to college as compared with 37 per cent whose fathers were Democrats.

Labor Union Affiliation. Of the graduates who indicated whether or not their father belonged to a labor union, the college group included 28 per cent of those whose fathers belonged to such a union and 52 per cent whose fathers did not belong. Fifty-seven per cent of non-union fathers sent their children to college while only 34 per cent of the graduates from union-member homes entered college. Undoubtedly, the differences found with regard to both the political and the labor union affiliation of the father may be explained in part by other variables yet to be analyzed.

CULTURAL BACKGROUND

The evidence from this study indicates that the value which parents place on education is an influential factor in a student's decision regarding his future career. The cultural background in which the student has been reared is clearly a reflection of the parental value system. It seems reasonable to suppose, therefore, that such particular aspects of the cultural background as the amount of serious reading or the number of discussions on current affairs taking place in the home might well be related to the future activity of young people coming out of that home. For this reason the graduates' response to a number of questions referring to the type of reading, music, etc., enjoyed by the students and their parents were studied in relation to the pursuits followed by the graduates after high school.

Reading Habits and Materials. Of the 15 per cent of the graduates who indicated that they read "a lot," 49 per cent were in college (Table 26). However, the students' own reading habits seemed to have no less effect on college attendance than those of their parents, since about one-half of fathers and mothers who were avid readers had children in college. Although not shown in Table 26, the special school students and their fathers ranked second in the amount of serious reading reported. This rank is probably a reflection of the fact that more women than men entered special schools and, as noted in Chapter I, women reported higher levels of serious reading on the part of their fathers than did men. The majority of graduates owning more than ten books were in college, and the majority of parents owning more than fifty books had children in college.

More serious and also more varied reading interests among the college students compared to the other groups is indicated in reference to magazines as well as books (Table 27). The college group was overrepresented compared to all the graduates in the reading of general interest, sports, news and cultural magazines. The housewives and unemployed graduates were greatly overrepresented only in the reading of pulp magazines. The military service group read mainly sports and special interest magazines; the employed graduates were overrepresented in the reading of pulp and special interest magazines.

The magazine preferences of parents followed a similar pattern, namely a wider variety and more serious reading by parents of college students, while pulp magazines were read by more parents of graduates in military service or unemployed. Evidently the cultural background and reading habits of the parents are associated with the decision of graduates to attend college. Reports by men students about parents' reading habits did not differ materially from those by women.

Socioeconomic Level and Cultural Interests. Through further analyses of the data, an effort was made to determine the relationship of certain cultural interests to college attendance when viewed by various socioeconomic levels. Thus such factors as the reading of serious books, the liking of popular and classical music, and the graduates' preference for types of magazines were summarized according to the three levels of father's occupation.

As might be expected, the graduates from the highest occupational level tended to go to college regardless of their literary and musical tastes. For example, of the graduates from the homes of professional men and executives 83 per cent of those who said they often read serious books continued their education, but interestingly enough 77 per cent of those in this socioeconomic category who said they rarely read serious books also went to college! As the social scale went down, the percentage of the groups going to college was smaller, regardless of the degree of cultural interests. Even so, the greater the cultural interest while still in high school, the more likely were the graduates to continue their education.

Discussion of World Affairs. The relationship of the graduates' discussion of world affairs to pursuits followed was, as might be expected, quite evident (Table 28). Of those who reported that they discussed world affairs daily, over 50 per cent went to college and 25 per cent were employed. By contrast, among those who never discussed such topics,

Table 26

Pursuits of Graduates by Amount of Serious Reading
Done in Home by Parents and Graduates

(Reported in Percentages)

	Amount of serious reading by father				Amount of serious reading by mother				Amount of serious reading by graduate			
	Quite a lot	Some	Little, none	No response	Quite a lot	Some	Little, none	No response	Quite a lot	Some	Little, none	No response
Pursuit	N=2110	N=3698	N=2873	N=1097	N=2064	N=4305	N=2322	N=1087	N=1474	N=5424	N=2454	N=426
College	53	44	36	38	48	45	38	36	49	43	41	35
Special school	7	7	6	7	6	7	6	7	8	7	5	8
Employed	26	34	39	38	30	32	40	38	27	34	38	36
Unemployed	4	6	7	7	5	6	6	7	6	6	5	8
Military service	6	6	8	6	7	7	6	8	6	7	7	8
Housewife	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 27

Pursuits of Graduates by Types of Magazines Read Regularly

(Reported in Percentages)*

Pursuit	N	Type of magazine							
		Pulp	General interest	Sports	News	Special interest	Cultural	Religious	Other
College	4206	6	85	33	39	63	20	3	1
Special school	637	14	86	12	30	68	11	6	1
Employed	3337	19	79	23	21	73	8	2	-
Unemployed	569	26	77	24	20	65	8	1	-
Military service	679	9	72	50	26	73	8	-	-
Housewife	350	32	85	4	19	70	10	3	-
All pursuits	9778	13	82	28	29	68	13	3	1

*Percentages exceed 100 because students read more than one type of magazine.

Table 28

Pursuits of Graduates by Frequency of Discussion of National And World Affairs with Friends and Family

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Frequency of discussion				
	Daily or almost daily N=1863	Several times in several weeks N=2963	Once or twice in several weeks N=3595	Never in several weeks N=998	No response N=369
College	53	48	38	27	42
Special school	6	7	7	6	8
Employed	25	30	39	46	34
Unemployed	5	5	7	8	6
Military service	8	7	6	7	6
Housewife	3	3	3	6	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100

almost the reverse was the case. When the amount of discussion is studied by type of pursuit (table not shown), the only group to compare in interest with college students on this dimension were those in the military service, an interest possibly inspired by personal motives in the latter case. Sex differences were not great, though fewer college women than men discussed world affairs regularly, while more employed women than men fell into this category.

FACULTY INFLUENCE

Discussion with Faculty. From various analyses, it was apparent that the graduates' college attendance was related to the frequency of their discussion of college with high school teachers and counselors. Of those who never discussed the topic with their counselors or teachers, only 18 per cent went to college. For those who discussed the matter "some," the proportions in both the college and non-college groups were about equal. Obviously, the category of "discussion" may cover routine interviews by counselors as well as advice sought by students. Though the relationship between discussion of college entrance and actual attendance is fairly clear, it may be that students who have already planned to go to college merely seek advice on specific matters such as admission regulations, course requirements, and like matters.

Encouragement by Faculty. In an attempt to distinguish between mere discussion of college and positive encouragement to attend, the seniors were asked to indicate the degree of such encouragement they had received from their high school teachers and counselors. Table 29 shows the amount of such encouragement by pursuits followed. Again, there seems to be a fairly clear relationship, although over one-fifth of the students in the non-college group reported "quite a lot" of encouragement from faculty members. Only seven per cent of the college group reported no encouragement at all, versus 29 per cent of the non-college group. Evidently, high school students, regardless of their later careers, do receive a considerable amount of encouragement to go to college from their high school teachers and counselors.

Table 29

Summary of Pursuits of Graduates by Extent to Which High School Teachers and Counselors Encouraged College

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	N*	Extent of encouragement				
		Not at all	Some	Quite a lot	No response	Total
College	4206	7	34	56	3	100
Special school	637	16	42	38	4	100
Other	4935	29	46	22	3	100

*The numbers given here are the same as those for Tables 30, 31, and 32.

Influence of Faculty. It is interesting that students were much less willing to admit to being influenced than to being encouraged in their decisions. The data in Table 30 suggest that teachers' influence does seem to have some effect on the students' attendance at colleges or special schools, but that it is far from being a necessary condition, since 31 per cent of the college group felt that they had not been influenced in the least. It should be noted that this question was more comprehensive than the previous one on encouragement, since it specified influence on both the decision to go or not to go to college. Even so, 53 per cent of the non-college group reported no influence at all. Few sex differences were noted in this respect.

Table 30

Summary of Pursuits of Graduates by Extent to Which High School Teachers and Counselors Influenced College Attendance

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Extent of influence				
	Not at all	Some	Quite a lot	No response	Total
College	31	49	17	3	100
Special school	40	43	12	5	100
Other	53	38	6	3	100

PEERS

College Plans of Friends in General. To assess the influence of the peer culture on students' decisions about college, it was necessary to investigate the general climate of opinion of the student peer group, in addition to the influence of close friends.

Each senior had been asked to indicate how many of his associates of his own age group were planning to go to college. Table 31 shows the breakdown for each category of response, in terms of the respondents' actual post-high school pursuits. Although only 12 per cent of the non-college group and only 2 per cent of the college group had indicated that none of their friends was intending to go to college, it was seen in another analysis that 84 per cent of the students who reported they had no friends planning college were not attending college. No differences were noted between men and women.

Table 31

Summary of Pursuits of Graduates By College Plans of Friends

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Number of friends planning college					
	None are going	Some are going	Most are going	All are going	No response	Total
College	2	19	53	23	3	100
Special school	7	44	36	9	4	100
Other	12	56	26	3	3	100

College Plans of Three Closest Friends. Students were also asked to specify the plans of their three closest friends. The responses are tabulated in Table 32. The proportion of students having two or three of their closest friends planning to enter college was more than twice as great for the college group as for the group not continuing formal education. Conversely, the proportion of students having only one or no friends planning college was three times as great for those not continuing as for the college group. Either close friends exert considerable influence on students' decisions to go to college, or students who decide to go to college for any number of reasons tend to choose their friends from the same subculture. Little found a similar relationship in his study of communities in Wisconsin.[12] For students in special and nursing schools, it appeared to make little difference whether their friends planned to attend college or not.

Table 32

Summary of Pursuits of Graduates by College Plans of Three Closest Friends

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	College plans of three closest friends					
	All three	Two	One	None; undecided	No response	Total
College	46	32	15	4	3	100
Special school	20	26	33	15	6	100
Other	11	25	33	24	7	100

The influence of the peer group is still apparent when ability is held constant. As seen in Table 33, college students, regardless of ability level, tended to have one to three of their close friends also going to college, although the proportion decreased steadily with the ability level. A smaller proportion of special school students at all ability levels had one to three friends attending college, and the non-college groups still smaller. On the other hand, the proportions having no college-going friends were greatest for the non-college group regardless of the ability level.

Encouragement by Friends. The graduates were asked whether their friends had influenced their decision or encouraged them to go to college. Only a small degree of active discouragement was reported, and that by men in the non-college sample. In fact, the majority claimed that their friends did not influence them in this respect. But the proportion claiming no influence was considerably larger for the non-college than the college group.

LIKING FOR HIGH SCHOOL

It was hypothesized that a student's feelings about the quality and value of his high school education may be an important factor in his decision to continue in school. The graduates were thus asked to indicate their degree of liking for high school. As shown in Table 34, the graduates generally enjoyed their high school experience, although women were more enthusiastic about it than men; in fact, 90 per cent of the women in the sample

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[12] J. Kenneth Little, Exploratlons Into the College Plans and Experiences of High School Graduates, University of Wisconsin, 1960, p. 52.

Table 33

Summary of Pursuits of Graduates by Ability Quintiles and College Plans of Three Closest Friends

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit and ability quintile	N	Number of three closest friends planning college					
		All three	Two	One	None	Undecided, no response	Total
College							
I (high)	1506	52	32	10	1	5	100
II	902	45	35	14	1	5	100
III	746	45	31	16	2	6	100
IV	527	39	31	21	2	7	100
V (low)	388	38	32	18	2	10	100
No ability score available	137	41	32	20	2	5	100
Special school							
I (high)	114	25	31	28	7	9	100
II	118	27	22	33	11	7	100
III	146	21	28	31	9	11	100
IV	102	12	23	39	15	11	100
V (low)	121	15	24	37	12	12	100
No ability score available	36	17	33	28	14	8	100
Other							
I (high)	586	12	29	31	13	15	100
II	817	13	26	34	13	14	100
III	952	10	27	32	15	16	100
IV	1083	8	24	34	16	18	100
V (low)	1279	10	21	34	17	18	100
No ability score available	236	10	23	39	9	19	100

Table 34

Pursuits of Graduates by Degree of Satisfaction with High School

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Degree of satisfaction with high school					
	Liked very much	Liked pretty well	Neither liked nor disliked	Disliked more than liked	Disliked very much	No response
	N=4590	N=3910	N=709	N=196	N=40	N=333
College	52	37	22	26	20	44
Special school	7	6	5	3	8	8
Employed	29	37	48	46	52	32
Unemployed	5	7	7	8	5	5
Military service	4	9	13	13	10	6
Housewife	3	4	5	4	5	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

expressed approval of their high school education. As expected, a specific relationship was found between liking high school and going to college. The vast majority (90 per cent) of those in college and special schools liked high school moderately or very much. Only 20 per cent of those who disliked high school very much went to college (this figure was only 3 per cent for the women), while 50 per cent of this group went directly into employment. The students who liked high school least were those in military service. The few women in military service liked high school less than any other single group.

VOCATIONAL PLANS AND ATTITUDES

Vocational Choice. A student's vocational choice may be expected to have some bearing on his academic aspirations, in spite of the fact that other surveys have shown unrealistic choices on the part of many students. The present sample was no different in this respect. The higher the level of vocational choice, the more likely were the graduates to be found in college. Although it is not shown here, when the responses of both men and women are combined, between 9 and 17 per cent of those who did not go to college indicated a vocation requiring completion of a college education, and even larger percentages chose jobs requiring at least two years of post-high school training.

When the vocational choices of men in particular are noted (Table 35), it may be seen that the largest group which failed to make a vocational choice in high school were those who later were unemployed (50 per cent) and the employed graduates were the second largest group (42 per cent). The college group had the lowest proportion of no response, indicating that the vocational plans of these students are more clear-cut than others.

Advice on Vocational Decision. Students were asked to indicate the person whose advice had been most helpful in arriving at a vocational decision (Table 36). For most of the groups, the mother was indicated as being the most helpful with vocational advice. The only exception was the military group, where the father was cited as being helpful more than twice as often as the mother. About one-fourth of the homemakers and students in special schools gave credit to the mother as being most helpful, as opposed to five per cent and seven per cent respectively who credited their fathers as being most helpful.

Individuals other than parents were cited much less frequently. High school teachers, personal friends, and high school counselors were mentioned, but the proportions were relatively small. College students, more than any other group, seemed to rely upon these sources of information and advice.

Separate analyses for the two sexes revealed some interesting facts. Mothers received the most citations for helpful advice, but the vast majority of those citing the mother were women, while the majority of those citing the father were men. However, college women were different in this respect. Though women comprised only 37 per cent of the college sample, 48 per cent of the women who found their father's advice most helpful were in college.

Time of Vocational Decision. The time at which the vocational decision was made seemed to bear a definite relation to the pursuits followed immediately after high school (Table 37). Nearly half the graduates reported that they made this decision during the junior or senior year of high school. However, one-half of the college, special school, and employed groups had decided upon a vocation by the end of the junior year, in contrast to the unemployed, military and homemaking groups, of whom less than one-half had made their decision by that time. Over 30 per cent of the unemployed group and 25 per cent of the military had not chosen a vocation in the April before graduation, whereas only 9 per cent of the special school and 15 per cent of the college group were in this position. In general, women seemed to make the decision earlier than men.

Importance of Getting Ahead. On the premise that a desire to "get ahead" in life would affect post-high school actions, the students were asked to indicate the degree of importance they attached to getting ahead as opposed to living a life of relaxation and leisure. In effect, however, this variable did not differentiate the various groups. About 90 per cent of the total sample thought that getting ahead was more important and 51 per cent considered it much more important. Getting ahead did, however, mean more to the

Table 35

Pursuits of Men Graduates by Their Choice of Vocation in High School

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	N	Vocational classification										
		Prof. I	Prof. II	Managerial	Semi-prof.	Small business owner	Sales and clerical	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	No response	Total
College	2318	34	20	5	7	1	1	4	-	-	28	100
Special school	121	10	17	4	8	1	4	17	2	-	37	100
Employed	1363	5	7	2	8	2	5	26	2	1	42	100
Unemployed	219	7	5	2	6	1	4	23	1	1	50	100
Military service	655	9	7	1	8	2	2	34	1	2	34	100

Table 36

Pursuits of Graduates by Person Whose Advice Was Most Helpful in Making a Vocational Decision

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Person whose advice was most helpful in making a vocational decision											
	Mother	Father	Both parents	Sibling	Other relative	Parents' friends	Personal friends	High school teacher	High school coun-selor	Other	No one; no re-sponse	Total
College	17	14	5	3	2	1	6	10	7	7	28	100
Special school	28	7	5	3	3	1	8	5	3	7	30	100
Employed	21	10	5	4	2	1	8	7	4	4	34	100
Unemployed	23	9	3	5	2	-	7	5	4	4	38	100
Military service	7	16	2	3	2	1	8	5	2	5	49	100
Housewife	25	5	5	3	2	-	9	6	4	4	37	100
Total	19	12	5	3	2	1	7	8	5	5	33	100

Table 37

Pursuits of Graduates by Time Vocational Decision Was Made

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Time vocational decision was made							
	Not by end of senior year	During senior year	During junior year	Early high school	In junior high	Since elementary school	No response	Total
College	15	28	19	18	10	7	3	100
Special school	9	27	16	17	11	16	4	100
Employed	21	26	15	18	12	5	3	100
Unemployed	31	23	13	17	8	5	3	100
Military service	25	28	17	15	9	4	2	100
Housewife	20	28	17	16	12	3	4	100

Table 38

Pursuits of Graduates by Expected Standard of Living at Age 40 Compared to Parents' Current Standard of Living

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Expected standard of living at age 40 relative to parents' current standard						
	Much higher	Little higher	About same	Little lower	Much lower	No response	Total
College	23	43	26	4	1	3	100
Special school	16	45	29	5	1	4	100
Employed	19	45	30	3	-	3	100
Unemployed	23	40	30	4	-	3	100
Military service	29	42	23	4	-	2	100
Housewife	15	39	38	3	1	4	100
All pursuits	21	43	28	4	1	3	100

college and special school groups than to any other group. More college women than men thought that getting ahead was less important than leading a relaxed life, while fewer employed women than would be expected felt this way.

Expected Standard of Living. As reported earlier, students on the whole were optimistic about their chances of making good, but for the most part, not unrealistically so (Table 38). Two-thirds of the graduates thought that by the age of forty they would have achieved a higher standard of living than their parents, but only one-fifth expected it to be much higher. To a generation which has witnessed rapid increases in the standard of living, such hopes would seem to be well-founded. It was interesting, however, that college students were more conservative about their future than the other groups.

Considerably more men than women expressed a belief that their standard of living would be about the same as, or lower than, their parents'. Incongruously, compared to other women, more of the unemployed women expected to fare much better than their parents. However, the unemployed women compared to other women had a much greater proportion of fathers in skilled or unskilled jobs; thus, the extreme response of "much higher" may simply reflect their fathers' occupations.

COLLEGE PLANS

Slightly more than half the sample (52 per cent) announced their intention of proceeding to college directly after high school. Actually 43 per cent were in college the following fall. That some changes in plans had taken place in the interim is shown by the fact that four per cent of those attending college had not planned to attend at any time, either immediately or later. Of those in the non-college group, 17 per cent had planned college directly after high school. Over half the students in special schools had planned to attend college directly. (The term "college" may have been understood to include special schools, since these establishments frequently call themselves "stewardess college," "beauty college," etc.) In general, the majority of students followed through with their plans: 76 per cent of the graduates planning college actually enrolled in college the next semester, and 90 per cent of those disclaiming plans for college did not enter college in the fall. There were no apparent differences between the men and women.

Parents' Encouragement. Parental encouragement in either direction would seem to be closely related to the ultimate outcome with respect to college attendance. Data for this sample corroborate this expectation. When parents strongly encouraged their children to do so, 75 per cent went to college. Apparently, strong encouragement is a very potent factor, for the corresponding figure, when the encouragement was relatively mild, fell to one-third. By contrast, among the non-college groups, parents who gave only mild encouragement numbered three times as many as those giving strong encouragement, and when strong discouragement was given by either parent, only 10 per cent entered college.

Analyses were also made to discern the impact of paternal encouragement according to socioeconomic levels. In general, it was found that although the socioeconomic level of the home is a more important factor than encouragement in determining whether a young person goes to college, there is a relationship between the two factors. At the high occupational level three-quarters of the college students had received strong encouragement from their fathers, as contrasted to 59 per cent at the middle, and 45 per cent at the low occupational levels. Even in the non-college group 27 per cent of the fathers at high-level occupations had strongly encouraged college attendance, versus 14 per cent in the middle, and 11 per cent at low-level occupations. One hopeful feature was the low proportion of fathers who strongly discouraged college. Only 3 per cent of the total sample indicated any kind of discouragement by their fathers. Only 13 per cent of the graduates whose fathers discouraged college went to college. Comparatively few of the graduates (8 per cent) had not discussed college at all with their parents, but of these, 88 per cent did not go to college. Almost 72 per cent of the college-bound students said that they discussed the matter "quite a lot," but only 57 per cent of those in special schools, and 32 per cent of the non-college group gave this response. It appears that the extent to which students discuss college plans with their parents has a definite relation to subsequent college attendance, but whether the discussion or the decision comes first remains an open question.

Importance of College to Student. Table 39 indicates the direct relationship between the importance of college to high school seniors and their actual college attendance. On the whole, students who entered college seemed to recognize the importance of further education; however, there were also many who recognized the importance, but yet did not attend. Fifteen per cent of those who thought it extremely important and 38 per cent who considered college quite important did not enter college. In contrast, four per cent did enter college who had said they did not really care about it.

Table 39

Pursuits of Graduates by Their Perception
Of the Importance of College Attendance

(Reported in Percentages)

	Importance of college attendance				
Pursuit	Extremely important	Quite important	Fairly important	Don't care	No response
Men	N=1707	N=1171	N=840	N=824	N=134
College	81	56	21	5	43
Special school	2	3	3	2	5
Other	17	41	76	93	52
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=1353	N=1142	N=1136	N=1326	N=145
College	75	53	15	3	37
Special school	11	14	8	8	14
Other	14	33	77	89	49
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=3060	N=2313	N=1976	N=2150	N=279
College	79	54	18	4	40
Special school	6	8	6	5	9
Other	15	38	76	91	51
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Time of Decision. Many college students contend that it is impossible for them to state exactly when their decision to go to college was made, since it was always assumed by the family that they would do so. Table 40 appears to provide corroborative evidence of early decisions to attend college. Thirty-one per cent of the students attending college had planned college since elementary school, and 17 per cent had made up their minds in junior high school. Altogether, nearly 80 per cent had made the decision by early high school; only 14 per cent left it until the senior year. On the whole, women tended to make the decision earlier than men.

Table 40

Time the Decision to Attend College Was Made
by the Graduates Who Actually Did Attend

(Reported in Percentages)

Time of decision	Graduates attending college		
	Men N=2318	Women N=1888	Total N=4206
During senior year	15	12	14
During junior year	12	9	10
Early in high school	21	17	19
In junior high school	17	16	17
Since elementary school	25	37	31
Don't know	4	2	3
No response	6	7	6
Total	100	100	100

Main Reason For Possibly Not Attending College. Students were asked to check the main reason why they might not go to college. Table 41 indicates that the single most probable reason was lack of money (30 per cent of the total sample checked this response), but, interestingly enough, it was the group that actually entered college or a special school who were most prone to say that lack of money might prevent them from going. Poor grades were also cited by all groups except the future homemakers as a possible reason for not going to college. Those who later were unemployed or in the military service groups were inclined to give priority to "no interest" in college, while the employed group had said they preferred to work, and the homemakers had said they preferred to marry instead of going to college. Preference for some alternative, such as employment or marriage, was frequently stronger than mere lack of interest in college, though the possibility that these reasons were sometimes given as a cover for lack of interest, grades, and money cannot be overlooked.

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

In recent years, increasing attention has been given to other types of non-intellectual factors associated with academic interests and achievement. Considerable research

Table 41

Pursuits of Graduates by Main Reason, Reported as Seniors, For Possibly Not Attending College

(Reported in Percentages)

Pursuit	Main reason for possibly not attending college									
	Poor grades N=1476	Not enough money N=2942	Prefer to work N=1671	Prefer to marry N=1089	No interest N=1550	Family opposition N=76	Military service N=69	Health; catastrophe N=122	Other N=242	No response N=541
College	40	58	29	39	27	43	52	93	41	58
Special school	6	7	5	7	8	7	-	3	7	6
Employed	34	25	51	31	42	33	15	3	36	24
Unemployed	8	3	8	5	9	9	3	-	4	4
Military service	11	6	4	1	12	8	30	-	9	5
Housewife	1	1	3	17	2	-	-	1	3	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	10[illegible]	100	100

suggests that among such factors the matter of personality patterns is important. Five scales of the Omnibus Personality Inventory,[13] developed by the Center for the Study of Higher Education, were administered to the total sample while the students were still in high school. Table 42 presents the standard means, and Figures 4 and 5 show profiles of the means for men and women on the five scales described below, according to their post-high school pursuits. The scores were standardized on the basis of the distribution of the scores of the total sample on each scale so that a score of 50 always represents the mean for the entire sample, and so that 10 points will always represent the standard deviation. The scales are listed below together with the traits they are intended to measure.

Table 42

Graduates' Standard Mean Scores on Selected Omnibus Personality
Inventory Scales Shown by Their Pursuits

Pursuits		Complexity		Lack of Anxiety		Nonauthoritarianism		Social Maturity		Thinking Introversion	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
College											
	Number	2318	1888	2318	1888	2318	1888	2318	1888	2318	1888
	Mean	50.6	52.0	51.0	51.0	51.2	52.4	51.2	52.5	52.5	53.5
Special school											
	Number	121	516	121	516	121	516	121	516	121	516
	Mean	49.9	48.9	48.5	51.0	47.2	49.2	47.1	49.1	50.3	50.3
Employed											
	Number	1170	1852	1154	1842	1170	1851	1170	1852	1170	1852
	Mean	48.8	48.5	48.8	49.5	48.0	48.4	48.3	48.2	46.7	47.4
Unemployed											
	Number	195	311	192	311	195	311	195	311	195	311
	Mean	50.1	49.5	48.5	48.3	49.6	48.4	49.4	48.1	46.2	46.2
Military service											
	Number	579	18	576	18	579	18	579	18	579	18
	Mean	50.7	48.9	49.8	50.5	49.2	49.2	49.9	48.8	48.4	46.5
Housewife											
	Number	0	298	0	296	0	298	0	298	0	298
	Mean	-	49.2	-	49.1	-	49.2	-	49.3	-	47.9

1. Complexity. This scale measures the subject's tendency to perceive and to react to the complexity of the environment, to show tolerance for stimuli which are novel or ambiguous, and to function generally at a level of sophistication commensurate with the demands of a technological society.

2. Lack of Anxiety. This scale, based on the short form of the Taylor Manifest

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[13] Omnibus Personality Inventory--Research Manual, Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, Berkeley, California, 1962.

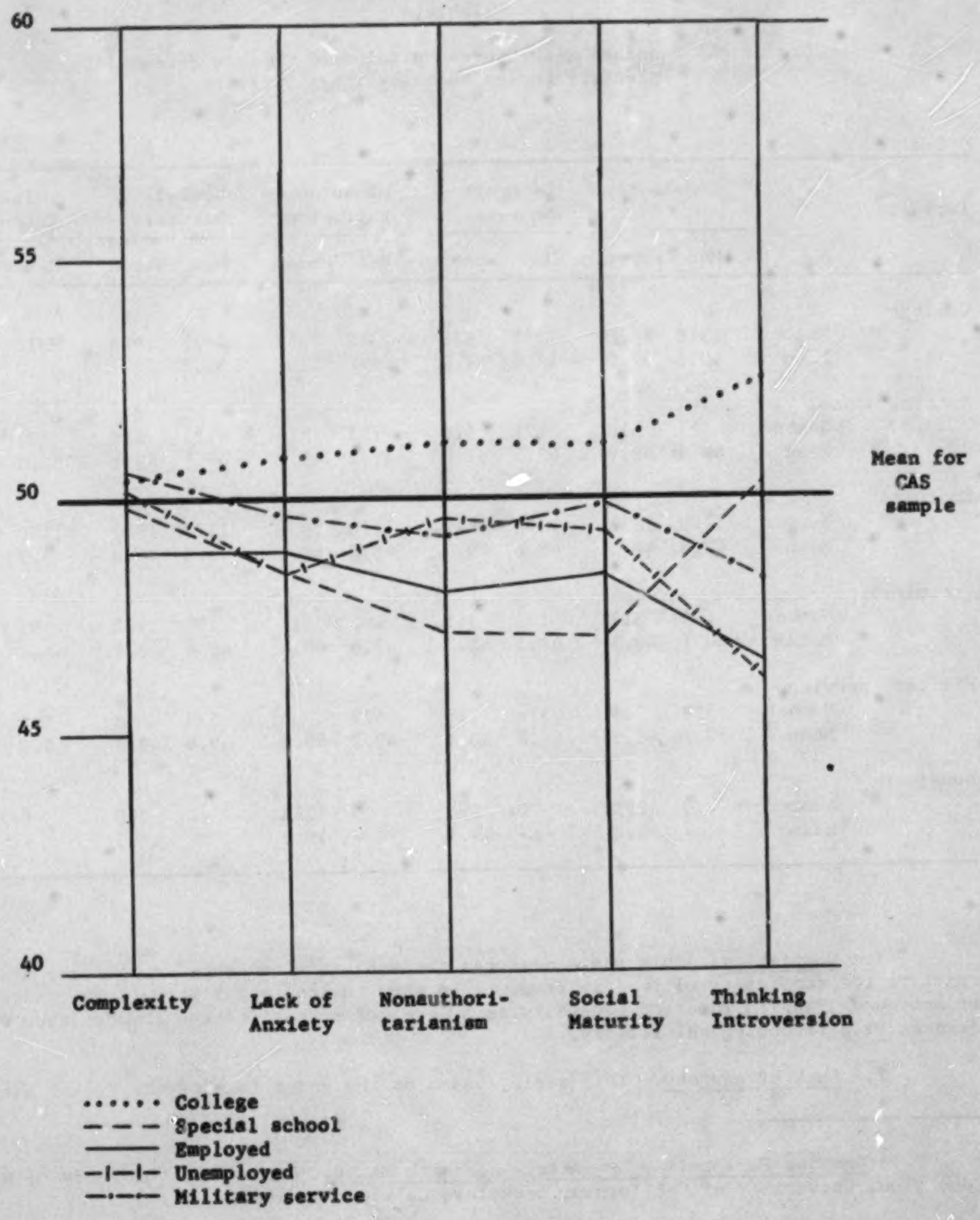
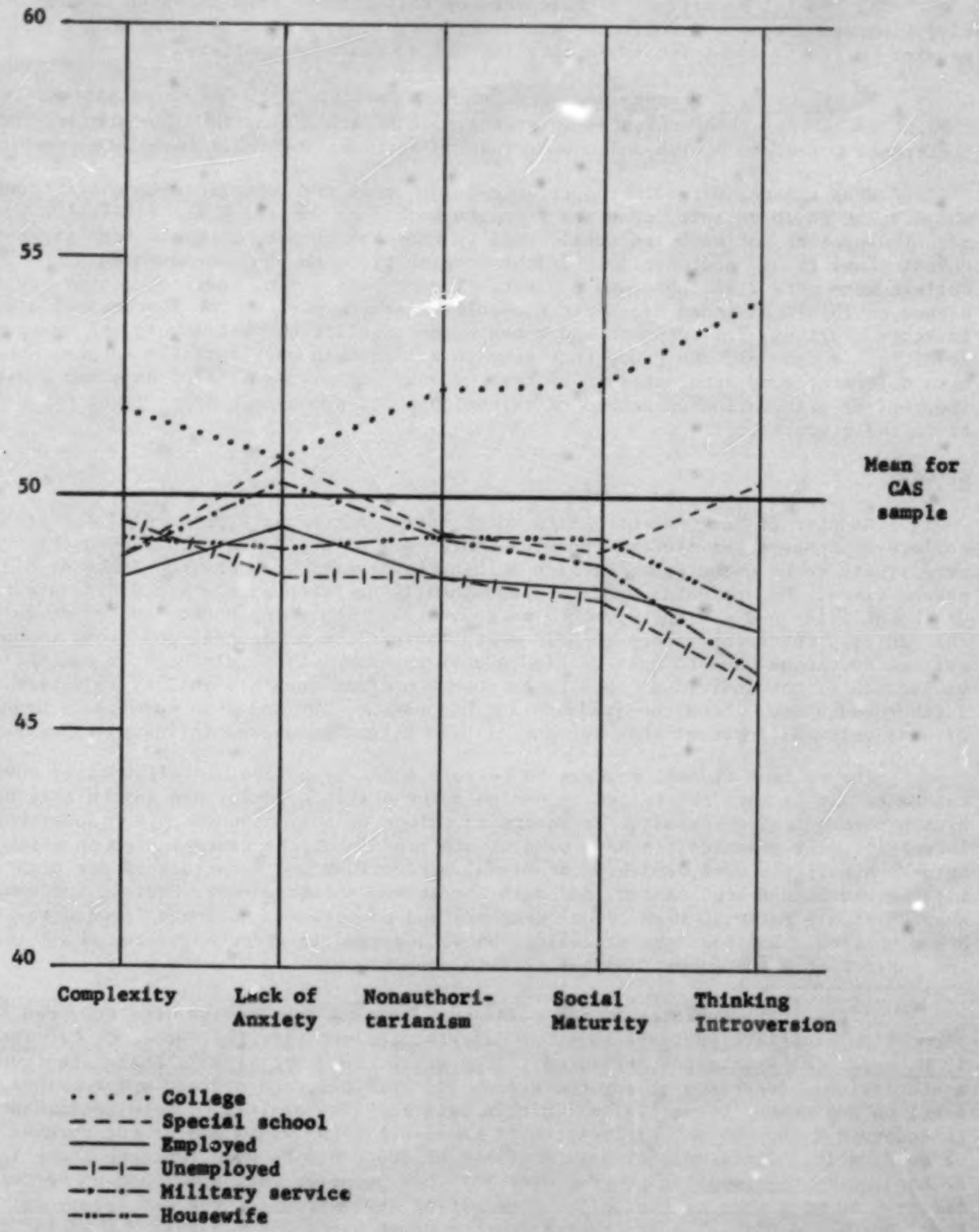


Figure 4

Profile of Men Graduates' Standard Mean Scores on Selected Omnibus Personality Inventory Scales Shown by Their Pursuits

Figure 5

Profile of Women Graduates' Standard Mean Scores on Selected Omnibus Personality Inventory Scales Shown by Their Pursuits



Anxiety Scale, indicates the degree of chronic anxiety or neuroticism.

3. Nonauthoritarianism. The rationale for this scale is based upon the description of the authoritarian personality by Adorno, *et al*. Low scorers tend to be conventional in their beliefs, rigid, prejudiced, and emotionally and intellectually inhibited. Their personal security is dependent upon strong identification with closed groups, upon undue reverence for the power symbols within those groups, and upon rejection of ideas and people not connected with those groups.

4. Social Maturity. High scorers on this measure tend to be uncompulsive, impunitive, independent, unconventional, agnostic, uncynical, and unromantic. They possess genuine curiosity and interest in intellectual and esthetic matters.

5. Thinking Introversion. High scorers indicate a liking for abstract, reflective thought and a variety of cultural interests such as art and music. Low scorers indicate a preference for overt action and the evaluation of ideas for their immediate practical worth.

When the graduates in the college-going group are compared with their counterparts who did not go to college, they are found to be higher in liking for reflective thought, more independent and unconventional, and, in the case of men, somewhat less given to chronic anxiety and neuroticism. On the Complexity scale the men who went to college were more like those who did not. The college women, however, scored considerably higher on this scale than did their non-college counterparts. The statistical differences in score profiles, for both men and women, were significant well beyond the one per cent level.[14] In general, the group that went to college was more socially mature, more curious, more tolerant, more interested in abstract ideas, and may be said to have had a higher theoretical orientation or scheme of values than did those in the group who did not continue their education.

SUMMARY

Chapter II has presented data which permit a composite picture of the prospective college student, as he differs from other high school graduates in his pursuits. He is more likely to be drawn from the high ability levels and from the top ranks of his high school class. His parents, who are predominantly of European stock and Protestant faith, are both living and are not divorced or separated. There are one or two other children in the family. The father tends to hold a professional or managerial position, to have had a college education, and to have married a college woman. The value system and the cultural background of the individual tend to be more important than his ability in determining his further education. Both the graduate and his parents own and read more books and magazines of wide cultural interest than is true of high school graduates following other pursuits.

The college student appears to be more socially mature, intellectually curious and tolerant. He is more interested in manipulating abstract ideas, and may be said to have a higher theoretical orientation or scheme of values than his counterpart. Nevertheless, he is sufficiently practical to have made up his mind about the general area in which he hopes to make his life's work, and his vocational aspirations and expectations are high. He has enjoyed his high school career, and with the active encouragement, advice, and emotional support of his parents, high school teachers and counselors, he looks forward to continuing his education. How the type of college he will attend is affected by the above factors is the subject of a subsequent chapter of this report.

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[14] The score profiles of the college and non-college groups were compared by using a form of multivariate analysis known as discriminant analysis (Cf. Hoel, C. G., *Introduction to Mathematical Statistics*, third ed., John Wiley, New York, 1962). This technique provides a statistical comparison of any two groups (in this case the college and combined non-college) on any number of variables (in this case the five scales). The discriminant function is determined through the application of Maholanobis' D^2 which may be interpreted in terms of an F ratio. Since only a maximum number of 300 could be used for each group in order to be handled by the computer program used for this purpose, each group had to be reduced randomly to meet this criterion. The resulting statistics for the men were: df = 5,594; F = 7.66; p = <.001. The statistics for the women were: df = 5,594; F = 12.13; p = <.001.

CHAPTER III

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TYPE OF LOCAL PUBLIC COLLEGE AND COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

In the preceding chapter it was seen that a number of factors, including ability, socioeconomic status, personality, and cultural background, are related to college entrance. Of primary interest in this study is the possibility that yet another factor, educational opportunity, plays an important role in the decision of high school graduates to continue their education. What impact does the presence of various types of local public colleges in the immediate vicinity have upon a student's decision to attend college, and upon his selection of a particular type of college?

There are many ways in which a local public college may influence college attendance on the part of young high school graduates. Perhaps the most obvious one is the fact that it enhances the convenience and reduces the expense of attendance. If a student can live at home, the financial burden is eased considerably, and many for whom the cost would otherwise be prohibitive may be inclined to consider college. But the economic consideration is not the only one. The very presence of a college in the community and the penetration of its faculty and students into community life seem likely to make people aware of the benefits accruing from a college experience. They cause the whole idea of college to seem less remote and more within the realm of possibility so that young parents and their children begin early to consider college as a matter-of-fact. In a sense, a community becomes college-oriented.

In any event, given both the current emphasis on the need for higher education for additional numbers of people, and the difficulties of a state or nation in providing sufficient collegiate opportunities, it seems important that those who must make major decisions concerning the higher education enterprise consider the relative effectiveness of various types of public colleges in local communities in stimulating the continued education of high school graduates.

Earlier studies by Koos[1] which indicated the superiority of the junior college as a democratizing agent in higher education led to an original hypothesis that the percentage of graduates entering college would be greater in communities maintaining junior colleges than in communities with other types of colleges. This is turn led to a somewhat more general hypothesis that public institutions--even institutions with somewhat similar admission requirements--differ in the extent to which their presence in a community attracts high school graduates of varying ability levels and social background who persist for at least one year. More specifically, answers were sought to the following questions:

1. How do various types of public institutions in roughly comparable communities compare in the extent to which they draw from the various socioeconomic and ability levels of high school graduates in their respective communities?

2. How do they compare in the influence they appear to exert on the percentage of graduates from various socioeconomic and ability levels to continue their education, whether in the local college or not?

In order to answer these questions it was obviously necessary to examine college attendance in communities with various types of public colleges. Reference has been made in the Introduction to the selection of the 16 communities, of which five have public junior or community colleges, four have freshman-sophomore extension centers, four have state colleges, and two have no public institutions at all. One is a metropolitan community which has multiple public college opportunities. Assuming that the matter of developing talent of all kinds and levels is important in today's society, it follows that the influence which various types of colleges appear to exert on the percentage of high school graduates who pursue formal education beyond high school is significant. Moreover, it is not merely a case of the gross percentage of graduates who are influenced, but quite as much a question of which graduates, particularly in relation to their ability and socioeconomic levels.

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[1] Leonard V. Koos, "How to Democratize the Junior College," School Review, May, 1944, pp. 271-284.

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to an analysis of the findings regarding the college pursuits of graduates, as these pursuits differ according to the type of college found in each community.

GENERAL RELATIONSHIP OF LOCAL PUBLIC COLLEGE OPPORTUNITY TO COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

In Table 43 is reported the percentage of graduates in communities with various types of colleges who either did or did not continue their education immediately following high school. As may be observed, the highest percentage entering college was found in communities having junior colleges, where 53 per cent went to college. Communities in which state colleges were located ranked second in college drawing power, with 47 per cent going on to college. In third place, although very close to the state college communities, was the metropolitan community with multiple collegiate opportunities, where 44 per cent of the graduates entered college. The communities with extension centers or with no local public colleges fell considerably below the other communities with only 34 and 33 per cent, respectively, continuing their education at the collegiate level. It is perhaps significant that in communities where extension centers are maintained, or where no public college exists, a higher percentage of graduates entered special schools than was true in the other communities.

Certain differences between the college attendance patterns of men and women in the various college-type communities are also worthy of note. It was reported in Chapter II that more men than women entered college. Thus it would follow that the percentage of men would be larger than that of women in each of the community situations. However, in communities with junior colleges the percentage of men entering college was 60 per cent, while in the total sample only 52 per cent of the men continued their education immediately after high school graduation. This suggests that junior colleges exert considerable influence on the number of male high school graduates who continue their formal education. The percentage of women going to college in the junior college communities was only one per cent higher than the percentage found in the state college communities, where the percentage of women approached that of men. The relatively high percentage of women entering colleges from these communities may be due to the fact that state colleges emphasize teacher education, which is of particular interest to women.

A somewhat different analysis of the drawing power factor is afforded by an examination of the data in Table 44, which reports by college-type communities the percentage of graduates who entered specific types of colleges. It might be expected that the majority of college-bound students in a given community would enter the type of college found in that community. As seen in Table 44, this did indeed prove to be true in the case of junior and state colleges. In communities with junior colleges, 76 per cent of those going to college were found in that type of institution. In state college communities, 65 per cent enrolled in state colleges. Even in the communities with multiple opportunities, 60 per cent of those who went to college entered a junior college. It is perhaps significant that in the communities with extension centers only 23 per cent of the college group attended such centers. As already noted, the proportion of graduates continuing their education was lowest in the communities which contained extension centers or which had no college, but it is of interest to note where young people in those communities continued their education, if they did so. As indicated in Table 44, a relatively high proportion of them went to private four-year colleges and universities. Most of the remainder entered public four-year colleges and universities. Thus, of the college group in extension center communities, 74 per cent entered directly into four--year institutions, and in communities with no college, the figure was 98 per cent.

Influence of College Types Upon Various Ability Groups. While it is important to assess the impact of various types of colleges upon graduates as a whole, it seems equally important to know the extent to which young high school graduates of varying ability are encouraged to continue their formal training. The issue is usually centered on the students of high ability whose failure to attend college is ordinarily regarded as unfortunate. It is probable that in today's society the failure on the part of the graduates with lesser ability to provide themselves with additional education may be equally detrimental, not only to society but

Table 43

Education of High School Graduates by Type of Local College in Community

(Reported in Percentages)

Further education	Type of college in community				
	Junior college	Extension center	State college	Multiple colleges	No college
Men	N=1146	N=1625	N=1203	N=449	N=253
College	60	45	49	49	35
Special school	2	3	3	2	3
None	38	52	48	49	62
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=1270	N=1776	N=1257	N=530	N=319
College	46	25	45	40	32
Special school	7	14	8	5	17
None	47	61	47	55	51
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=2416	N=3351	N=2460	N=979	N=572
College	53	34	47	44	33
Special school	5	9	5	4	11
None	42	57	48	52	56
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Table 44

Types of Colleges Attended by High School Graduates by Sex, and Type of Local College in Community

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college attended	Type of college in community				
	Junior college	Extension center	State college	Multiple colleges	No college
Men	N=692	N=725	N=590	N=222	N=89
Private 2-year college	1	1	1	3	2
Private 4-5 year college	6	22	16	4	26
Private university	2	11	5	3	7
Public 2-year college	77	2	1	68	-
Extension center	-	23	-	-	-
Public 4-5 year college	4	11	64	11	21
Public university	10	30	13	11	44
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=579	N=432	N=564	N=212	N=101
Private 2-year college	3	4	2	1	2
Private 4-5 year college	7	29	17	4	32
Private university	1	5	3	2	3
Public 2-year college	75	1	-	52	-
Extension center	-	22	-	-	-
Public 4-5 year college	4	14	67	28	31
Public university	10	25	11	13	32
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=1271	N=1157	N=1154	N=434	N=190
Private 2-year college	2	2	2	2	2
Private 4-5 year college	6	25	16	4	30
Private university	2	9	4	2	5
Public 2-year college	76	1	1	60	-
Extension center	-	23	-	-	-
Public 4-5 year college	4	12	65	20	26
Public university	10	28	12	12	37
Total	100	100	100	100	100

to themselves. Thus, there is need to assess the system of higher education in terms of its apparent influence on the college-going rates of students with varying abilities.

The data reported in Table 45 indicate, in terms of ability and type of local college, the percentages of graduates who did and did not continue their education. Several points are worthy of note:

1. The communities which sent on to college the highest percentage of the most able graduates (top quintile) were the junior college and state college communities (77 per cent and 76 per cent respectively). When the upper two quintile groups were combined, it was found that in junior college communities 69 per cent entered college, and in the state college communities 67 per cent entered. Thus, the influence of the junior college and the state college on the high-ability students was approximately the same.

2. The loss from the highest ability group was, as would be expected, most severe in the communities with no public colleges, where only half the top quintile entered college and 7 per cent entered a special school. The second lowest record of college attendance for this group was found in the metropolitan community, where less than 60 per cent went on to college and only 2 per cent entered a special school.

3. The junior college communities and the metropolitan community had similar degrees of influence on the college attendance of students at the middle and lower end of the ability scale. Even within the lowest quintile a third of the group in these types of communities entered college. The fact that the metropolitan community contained a junior college (as well as other public institutions) undoubtedly accounts for the higher percentage of lower ability students in college. On the other hand, the presence of a junior college in the metropolitan community did not result in nearly as many high-ability students going on as was found in three of the other types of communities.

When men were considered separately from the total, it was also found that junior colleges exercised a strong influence on the college-going graduates of high ability. As has already been reported for junior college communities, a higher percentage of men graduates continued their education than was true in communities with other types of colleges. Further analysis of the data revealed that in junior college communities 84 per cent of the men in the upper quintile and 68 per cent of those in the second highest quintile entered college. Again state colleges ranked second, with the corresponding percentages of 76 and 57. In this respect the extension centers also ranked reasonably high, with 72 per cent of men in the first quintile and 49 per cent of those in the second quintile going to college.

With respect to high-ability women, the impact of state colleges appeared to be the greatest. In communities with these colleges 76 per cent of the most able women and 53 per cent of those in the second quintile became college students, while the corresponding percentages in junior college communities were 71 and 54.

Influence on Socioeconomic Groups. Differing rates of college attendance were not, however, dependent only upon ability. As might be expected, important differences were also noted in the impact which various types of colleges appeared to have on graduates of varying socioeconomic groups as identified by the occupational level of the father. Table 46 presents the pursuits of the graduates in the four types of communities, according to the occupational level of the father (high, middle, and low).[2] It is not surprising that the degree of influence on graduates from high occupational level homes was about the same among the college types, with junior colleges and state colleges being almost identical. As the socioeconomic level goes down, however, important differences are noted. In the middle-level group the junior college leads with 54 per cent of graduates from the group entering college. State

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[2] See Appendix C for discussion of occupational categories.

Table 45

Further Education of Graduates by Ability (SCAT) Quintiles and by Type of Local College in Community

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of local college and graduates' further education	Ability quintiles					
	I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No score available
Junior college	N=491	N=451	N=455	N=433	N=535	N=51
College	77	60	50	43	33	41
Special school	4	6	5	5	5	6
None	19	34	45	52	62	53
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Extension center	N=773	N=628	N=638	N=577	N=590	N=145
College	64	38	30	20	12	28
Special school	7	9	11	7	9	11
None	29	53	59	73	79	61
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
State college	N=592	N=459	N=451	N=434	N=439	N=85
College	76	55	45	33	17	40
Special school	4	5	7	4	6	8
None	20	40	48	63	77	52
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Multiple colleges	N=177	N=184	N=189	N=161	N=149	N=119
College	59	52	47	37	33	31
Special school	2	1	2	4	5	8
None	39	47	51	59	62	61
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
No college	N=155	N=115	N=111	N=107	N=75	N=9
College	50	35	30	21	16	56
Special school	7	8	15	15	12	-
None	43	57	55	64	72	44
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 46

Further Education of High School Graduates by Fathers' Occupational Level and Type of Local College in Community

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of local college and graduates' further education	Fathers' occupational level		
	High	Middle	Low
Junior college	N=336	N=1318	N=512
College	79	54	38
Special school	2	5	7
None	19	41	55
Total	100	100	100
Extension center	N=406	N=1976	N=711
College	69	34	21
Special school	7	9	8
None	24	57	71
Total	100	100	100
State college	N=347	N=1358	N=452
College	79	48	27
Special school	5	6	6
None	16	46	67
Total	100	100	100
Multiple colleges	N=118	N=526	N=201
College	66	47	39
Special school	4	3	3
None	30	50	58
Total	100	100	100
No college	N=67	N=338	N=118
College	72	34	16
Special school	4	11	15
None	24	55	69
Total	100	100	100

college and the multiple-opportunity communities were almost identical in their apparent influence and both were somewhat below the junior college communities.

Differences in the degree of influence were even greater at the low occupational level. Here the junior college and the multiple-college communities appeared to exercise by far the greatest influence on the number attending college. In these communities almost two-fifths of the graduates from the low socioeconomic level went on to college, compared with only 21 per cent in extension center communities and 27 per cent in communities with state colleges.

It may also be observed from Table 46 that even in communities with no public colleges, a high percentage of graduates from the high occupational level continued their education. This percentage fell sharply as the occupational level declined and at the lowest level only 16 per cent entered college, although another 15 per cent entered special schools.

Although not shown in Table 46, the influence of local college type was greater for men than for women. In the junior college communities exactly half the men in the lowest occupational level entered college, compared with 42 per cent in the multiple-college community, 30 per cent in the state college community, and 26 per cent in the communities with extension centers. Among women these differences were considerably less pronounced than for men.

Socioeconomic Level and Ability Combined. Since both ability and socioeconomic status were seen to be related to differing rates of college attendance according to the type of college in the community, it was of interest to determine whether the socioeconomic differences remained if ability were controlled. For purposes of simplification, the ability quintiles used in previous analyses were regrouped as follows: the uppermost 40 per cent, the middle 20 per cent, and the lowest 40 per cent of the graduates. Table 47 reflects the analysis of college entrance, by type of college in the community and by occupational levels, for the three ability groups. Specific attention is drawn to the data pertaining to the graduates who were in the highest 40 per cent and to those who ranked in the lowest 40 per cent of the ability distribution.

It may be recalled that, as reported for the college-type communities in Tables 45 and 46, even though rate of college attendance was related to ability and to socioeconomic status, there was considerable variation in college attendance among the communities with various types of local colleges, particularly for the low ability and low occupational level graduates. The data in Table 47 indicate that this variation also exists when simultaneously holding constant the levels of ability and socioeconomic status. A very high percentage of the graduates of high ability and from high occupational level homes continued their education, even from communities with no college. However, there remained some variation in rate of college entrance among types of communities in this group (89 per cent from communities with a state college to 74 per cent from communities with a variety of colleges). Variation in rate of college entrance according to type of college within the community increased among graduates who were of high ability but who came from middle occupational level homes (69 per cent from junior college communities to 45 per cent in communities with no college). The greatest variation in college attendance within different kinds of communities existed among graduates who were of high ability but who came from low socioeconomic homes. Of this group, 53 per cent of the graduates in the junior college communities and 49 per cent in the multiple college community (which included a junior college), continued their education. The most unfortunate situation was found in communities with no public institutions, where only slightly more than a fifth of the graduates of high ability but from low occupational level homes went on to college.

The relative influence of ability and occupational level may be seen by examining further these variables as they operate in the junior college communities. Combining groups in Table 45, it is found that in junior college communities 69 per cent of the graduates from the upper two ability quintiles went on to college. If, however, the occupational level variable is added, a different pattern emerges. In the junior college communities, of the graduates who were in both the upper 40 per cent of ability and the high socioeconomic level, 86 per cent continued their education, suggesting that at the upper end, the economic factor exerts a greater influence than does ability. A similar situation is observed in communities with state colleges, where 67 per cent of the upper two ability quintiles continued their education, but for those in this same ability group who were in the high socioeconomic level the percentage was 89.

Table 47

Further Education of High School Graduates by Type of College in Their Community and by Their Ability Level and Fathers' Occupational Level

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college in the community by graduates' further education	Graduates' ability level and fathers' occupational level								
	Upper 40%			Middle 20%			Lower 40%		
	Occupational level			Occupational level			Occupational level		
	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
Junior college	N=196	N=540	N=154	N=61	N=257	N=97	N=74	N=487	N=254
College	86	69	53	80	49	39	63	40	31
Special school	1	5	8	-	6	7	4	4	6
None	13	26	39	20	45	54	33	56	63
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Extension center	N=236	N=870	N=218	N=74	N=377	N=136	N=74	N=659	N=320
College	80	51	35	57	31	18	48	14	13
Special school	5	8	9	10	13	7	9	9	7
None	15	41	56	33	56	75	43	77	80
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
State college	N=213	N=613	N=132	N=52	N=266	N=91	N=66	N=432	N=213
College	89	65	41	71	48	25	59	24	18
Special school	4	5	7	8	8	6	5	5	6
None	7	30	52	21	44	69	36	71	76
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Multiple colleges	N=59	N=191	N=78	N=20	N=113	N=27	N=28	N=169	N=66
College	74	57	49	65	57	26	57	35	30
Special school	2	1	3	-	1	4	7	5	3
None	24	42	48	35	42	70	36	60	67
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No college	N=36	N=161	N=52	N=16	N=66	N=21	N=14	N=105	N=44
College	80	45	22	50	29	28	69	20	5
Special school	3	7	14	12	15	11	-	14	19
None	17	48	64	38	56	61	31	66	76
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

In the middle ability quintile, 50 per cent of the graduates (all occupational levels) in junior college communities attended college (Table 45). As is seen in Table 47, nearly the same percentage of this ability group from the middle occupational level went on. However, 80 per cent of the middle ability, *high* occupational level graduates continued, while only 39 per cent of the middle ability, *low* occupational level graduates continued. Continuing the analysis in junior college communities it was found that 37 per cent of all graduates at the low ability level (quintiles IV and V) attended college. However, as is indicated in the table, the distribution of low ability continuing students by high, middle, and low occupational groups was 63, 40, and 31 respectively, again indicating the impact of income and social class on post-high school education of students with similar ability.

The overall impact of socioeconomic level was seen in Table 19, Chapter II, which showed the relationships of these two variables without reference to type of local college. It is apparent that socioeconomic level exerts a strong influence on college attendance. While this is true for all college-type communities, the adverse effect of low socioeconomic level is generally greatest in communities with no college or with extension centers, and is least in junior college communities, as shown in Table 47 of this chapter. In the junior college communities, among low socioeconomic level graduates 53 per cent of high ability, 39 per cent of middle ability, and 31 per cent of low ability individuals entered college. The comparable figures for low socioeconomic level graduates in *all* communities were 41 per cent, 26 per cent, and 20 per cent. In no-college and extension center communities respectively, the comparable percentages were 22 and 35 (high ability), 28 and 18 (middle ability), and 5 and 13 (low ability).

Entrance Into Local Colleges. The foregoing report of graduates from communities with various types of colleges who continued their education pertains to those who went on to any college or special school, regardless of its location. The principal focus was the apparent influence of the type of local college on college attendance in general.

Naturally, not all the graduates entered the local college, but it is of interest to note the extent to which this was the case. As reported in Table 43, 53 per cent of the graduates in communities with junior colleges went on to college. Table 44 shows that 76 per cent of these students attended a public two-year college. For the most part they entered their own local junior college. In state college communities, where 47 per cent of the graduates became college students, 65 per cent of those entering college did so in a four- or five-year public college, again usually in the local institution.

In communities with extension centers, 34 per cent of the graduates continued their education. Of these, 23 per cent entered an extension center, 28 per cent a public university, 25 per cent a private four- or five-year college, and the remainder entered other types of colleges. In the metropolitan community where 44 per cent of the graduates went to college, 60 per cent of these students entered a junior college, 20 per cent a public four- or five-year college, and 12 per cent a public university, while the other 8 per cent entered various other types of post-high school institutions. In the no-college communities where only 33 per cent continued, 37 per cent of the college attenders entered a public university, 30 per cent a private college, 26 per cent a public four- or five-year college, and 7 per cent a private two-year college or a private university.

SUMMARY

In Chapter III has been presented an analysis of the college-going rate among high school graduates in several college-type communities, in terms of the differential impact of the type of local public college in the community. The first part of this analysis was concerned with the general relationship between college type and college attendance. Among communities with junior colleges, an average of 53 per cent of all high school graduates in this study went on to college. The figure for state college communities was 47 per cent, for the multiple-colleges community 44 per cent, for extension center communities 34 per cent, and for no-college communities 33 per cent. The impact of junior colleges was even more marked when men alone were considered. However, among women the effect of junior colleges was about equal to the impact of state colleges on college attendance.

The impact of the various college-types was next examined in terms of relative effect upon graduates of different ability groups. Again, the junior college communities sent more graduates on to college in every ability quintile, except the lowest, in which the multiple-colleges and junior college communities were equal. In the highest ability quintile, state college and junior college communities were alike in sending more graduates to college, and the state college communities sent more women to college than did the junior college communities. In the lowest ability quintile, however, the overall effect of the junior colleges was nearly twice that of the state colleges.

When fathers' occupational level was considered, it was found that type of local college had least effect upon graduates from the upper socioeconomic level, and greatest effect upon those from the low level. For all students from that level, junior colleges and the multiple opportunities of the metropolitan community were about equal in effect; both were far more effective than any of the other college-types. For men in the low occupational level, differences were even more pronounced, with junior colleges having the greatest influence on the percentage of men attending college.

When ability and socioeconomic variables were analyzed in combination, it was found that 74 per cent or more of the high-ability, high-socioeconomic group went on to college regardless of type of local college, or absence thereof, with the average for all communities being 82 per cent. It was particularly noted that in no-college communities only slightly more than a fifth of high-ability, low-socioeconomic high school graduates attended college. This is illustrative of the general observation that college attendance is to a greater extent a function of socioeconomic level than it is of ability.

Finally, the question was raised whether the impact of type of local college on college attendance is generalized or limited only to the local college. It was found that in junior college and state college communities there was a strong tendency for graduates to attend colleges of the local type, but this was not true in the extension center communities. In the no-college communities nearly all of the college group attended four-year institutions.

The data document the fact that different kinds of local colleges are related in different ways to the college attendance rate of high school graduates in the community. In general, the evidence is that junior colleges are most effective in encouraging young people to continue their education, with state colleges exerting approximately equal influence when women alone are considered. The effect of the junior colleges is most noticeable among those graduates of high ability but low socioeconomic level, a group about which there is mounting national concern. It is perhaps equally significant, however, that the presence of a junior college also increases college attendance among young persons in the lower ability levels, suggesting that it, more than other types of colleges, encourages high school graduates of varying ability and socioeconomic backgrounds to make the most of their educational potential.

In the following chapter the emphasis will be shifted to the types of colleges actually attended by graduates, with an examination of various factors related to choice of college.

CHAPTER IV

FACTORS RELATED TO TYPE OF COLLEGE ATTENDED

The diversity of colleges and universities in the system of American higher education leads to many questions about the characteristics of the students who attend the various types of institutions. To a considerable degree, selection is exercised by both students and institutions, with each group exercising some control over the composition of individual student bodies. The result is that many institutions, as well as general types of colleges, are known either to attract or to select students with certain identifiable general characteristics.

Because additional information about the phenomenon of matching students and institutions is badly needed, inquiry was made into the differential selection and recruitment by various types of colleges which were entered by those graduates who continued their education.

GENERAL DISTRIBUTION BY SEX

Table 48 shows the distribution of the 4206 graduates (50 per cent of the men and 37 per cent of the women in the total sample) among the various types of colleges attended. The majority of students attended public two-year and four- and five-year colleges. This finding is not unexpected since these types of colleges enroll the majority of all college students, and the majority of the present sample comprises graduates from communities in which these types of colleges exist. However, it is surprising that 28 per cent of the college sample come from communities with an extension center and yet only six per cent of the college sample actually entered an extension center.

Sex differences in the distribution across types of institution are nominal. Only in the public colleges and universities did there seem to be differences: six per cent more of the women than of the men attended a public college, whereas four per cent more of the men than of the women attended a public university.

Table 48

Type of College Entered by High School Graduates, Fall, 1959

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Men N=2318	Women N=1888	Total N=4206
Private 2-year	1	3	2
Private 4- or 5-year	14	16	15
Private university	6	3	4
Public 2-year	30	29	30
Extension center	7	5	6
Public 4- or 5-year	23	29	26
Public university	19	15	17
Total	100	100	100

Private institutions attracted 21 per cent of the graduates who went on to college, with most of this group choosing the private four- or five-year colleges. A slightly larger porportion of women than men enrolled in the private two-year colleges, while the reverse was the case for private universities.

ABILITY AND HIGH SCHOOL PERFORMANCE

Ability. Do students of high ability gravitate toward a particular type of college or do they distribute themselves throughout all types, since they have a wider choice than low-ability students? To answer this question, the data for the college sample were grouped by ability quintiles (Table 49).

Of the graduates attending private universities, by far the largest percentage came from the top-ability quintile. Next in order of selectivity were the private four- or five-year colleges, and after them the public universities. On the other hand, the multiple nature and "open door" policy of the two-year public college are manifested by the spread of ability among its students. It is noteworthy, however, that a fourth of its students came from the top quintile. The state colleges and the extension centers each drew from student ability levels in about the same way.

Rank in High School. The high school record has long been recognized as one of the most reliable predictors of college performance. It has also been found to be related to type of college entered, as may be seen in respect to the present sample in Table 50. The private university drew 62 per cent of its students from the top quintile and 22 per cent from the second quintile of high school rank. The public university fell somewhat behind with 48 per cent and 24 per cent of its students classified at the top and second quintiles respectively. Only 21 per cent of the students in public or private two-year colleges and about 30 per cent in extension centers and public four- and five-year colleges were in the top rank quintile. When analyzed further it was found that more women from the high quintiles entered various types of colleges than did men in the same quintiles.

Table 49

Graduates' Ability Quintiles by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	N*	Ability quintiles I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No score available	Total
Private 2-year	81	25	29	15	20	11	-	100
Private 4- or 5-year	624	48	21	14	9	5	3	100
Private university	187	65	17	10	3	2	3	100
Public 2-year	1247	24	20	20	16	17	3	100
Extension center	264	33	25	21	11	7	3	100
Public 4- or 5-year	1083	32	22	19	14	9	4	100
Public university	720	46	23	16	9	3	3	100

*Unless otherwise indicated, the numbers for tables used in this chapter are those given here.

Table 50

Graduates' Quintile Rank in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Rank in class						
	I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No rank available	Total
Private 2-year	21	28	21	17	9	4	100
Private 4- or 5-year	45	27	14	9	4	1	100
Private university	62	22	10	2	1	3	100
Public 2-year	21	21	20	15	11	12	100
Extension center	31	31	18	14	5	1	100
Public 4- or 5-year	29	27	19	13	7	5	100
Public university	48	24	15	8	3	2	100

An interesting phenomenon arises concerning the achievement level of high school seniors who attended local colleges compared with those who went away to college (Table 51). Of the students who entered a local private college or a college out of town 43 per cent *were from the highest rank quintile*, but of those who entered a local public college only 26 per cent were in the top quintile. Each of the college types drew about the same proportions from the second and third quintiles. A relatively high proportion of students who entered local public colleges of all types were from the lowest quintiles.

Table 51

Graduates' Quintile Rank in High School by Locale of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Locale of college	N	Rank in class						
		I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No rank available	Total
Local public	2323	26	24	19	14	8	9	100
Local private	178	43	29	12	9	3	4	100
Out-of-town	1705	43	25	16	9	5	2	100

SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Father's Occupation. From this and other studies it is clear that the occupation of the father has considerable influence not merely upon whether his child will go to college, but upon the type of college he will attend. As shown in Table 52, almost half the students attending a private university reported their fathers at the professional and managerial occupational levels. Of the students who attended private four- or five-year colleges and public universities, about one-third came from families in these top three occupational groups. This is in contrast to the public colleges which enrolled a majority of students whose fathers were in the sales, clerical, skilled, and semi-skilled occupational classifications. In addition to these general tendencies, specific differences in father's occupation among students entering different kinds of colleges are noteworthy. For example, 23 per cent of the students enrolling in private two-year colleges had fathers who were small businessmen compared to 15 per cent of the students in private universities; conversely, 24 per cent of the private university students reported fathers with managerial or executive positions compared to seven per cent of the private two-year college students. Students in the private four- and five-year colleges reported fathers with managerial and small business occupations in equal proportions, approximately 15 per cent. In other words, students who enrolled in private institutions consistently reported a large proportion of fathers whose occupations may be classified as business management, but the type and level of business reported varies by level of private institution.

Table 52

Fathers' Occupational Classification
by Type of College Graduates Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Fathers' occupational classification									
	Prof. I	Prof. II	Mgr.	Semi-prof.	Small business owner	Sales and clerical	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Total
Private 2-year	4	9	7	1	23	17	25	9	5	100
Private 4- or 5-year	12	5	15	4	14	12	27	7	4	100
Private university	17	8	24	2	15	14	16	3	1	100
Public 2-year	4	4	8	2	14	13	34	11	10	100
Extension center	4	3	6	2	9	16	41	9	10	100
Public 4- or 5-year	6	4	9	3	14	15	35	9	5	100
Public university	14	7	14	1	16	16	23	6	3	100

Again, analysis of the data by location shows the same pattern. Table 53 indicates that well-to-do families tended to send their children to out-of-town schools. Over one-half of the college students from Professional I, managerial and semi-professional homes left their community to go to college. Whereas, about 45 per cent of the college students from Professional II, small business owner, and sales and clerical homes went out of town and about half of them went to the local public college. In contrast, one-third or less of the students from skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled homes went away to college.

Table 53

Fathers' Occupational Classification by Locale of College Graduates Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Locale of college	Prof. I N=332	Prof. II N=211	Mgr. N=428	Semi-prof. N=94	Small business owner N=541	Sales and clerical N=497	Skilled N=1254	Semi-skilled N=323	Unskilled N=238
Local public	33	50	40	45	51	51	63	66	72
Local private	7	4	3	3	4	7	4	4	1
Out-of-town	60	46	57	52	45	42	33	30	27
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Parent's Education. Another factor which influenced the type of college attended was the educational level attained by graduates' fathers (Table 54). Sixty per cent of the students who entered private universities had fathers who had attended college, some going as far as graduate school. However, only 49 per cent of the students who entered public universities, and 43 per cent of those who entered private four- or five-year colleges had fathers who had attended college. As would be expected, there were fewer students in public two-year colleges whose fathers had had a similar amount of education. In fact, 20 per cent of the students who enrolled in these colleges had fathers who did not go beyond grade school, while in this and the extension center group were found the lowest proportion of fathers with a higher education.

The same trends were apparent, though less clear-cut, for mothers' education. Private universities enrolled the greatest percentage of students with mothers having a superior educational background, with the public universities and the private four- or five-year colleges close behind. Extension centers and public two-year colleges enrolled students with the largest percentage of mothers who did not finish high school. In every type of college, the proportion of girls whose mothers had at least some higher education was greater than the proportion of boys whose mothers had gone beyond high school. If the mother finished college, her daughter was more likely to go out of town or to a local private school.

RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND

Religion. Does the religious belief of parents affect the type of college they choose for their children? From Table 55 it may be seen that there is some relationship between such belief and the type of college selected. Almost half the Jews in the college group enrolled in public universities as opposed to 17 per cent of Catholics and Protestants. Catholics were found predominantly in public two-year (22%), public four- or five-year (21%), and private four- or five-year colleges and universities (20%). Public two-year colleges claimed a larger proportion of Protestants (30%) and those professing no religion (56%), or some religion other than those specified (35%). Of all sects, it was the Catholics who patronized private four- or five-year colleges the most; however, these colleges still drew two-thirds of their enrollment from the Protestant denominations. Similarly, while Catholics and Jews were over-represented in the private universities, these institutions were 45 per cent Protestant.

Table 54

Education of Fathers by Type of College Graduates Entered (Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Fathers' education							
	Graduate school	Finished college	Some college	Finished high school	Some high school	Elementary school or less	No response	Total
Private 2-year	10	10	19	22	17	17	5	100
Private 4- or 5-year	13	14	16	24	14	14	5	100
Private university	19	23	18	20	9	8	3	100
Public 2-year	5	9	15	25	17	20	9	100
Extension center	2	5	14	36	22	17	4	100
Public 4- or 5-year	7	10	14	30	18	12	9	100
Public university	15	16	18	24	15	8	4	100

Table 55

Graduates' Religion by Type of College Entered (Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Graduates' religion					
	Protestant N=2836	Roman Catholic N=827	Jewish N=101	Other N=66	None N=94	No response N=282
Private 2-year	2	2	1	3	-	1
Private 4- or 5-year	15	20	8	5	8	9
Private university	3	8	11	15	5	2
Public 2-year	30	22	20	35	56	40
Extension center	6	10	3	6	1	3
Public 4- or 5-year	27	21	12	21	11	33
Public university	17	17	45	15	19	12
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Catholics were heavily over-represented in local private schools, and under-represented in local public schools, whereas the reverse was true for Protestants. Special schools also drew more Catholics than would be expected from the over-all sample proportions. In fact, about one-third of the women in special schools were Catholics.

An interesting feature is the high proportion of Jewish students (52 per cent) who went out of town to college. Protestants and Catholics, on the other hand, had only 19 per cent and 15 per cent respectively who went to college out of town. But a third of the Jews enrolled in the local public colleges, which were heavily favored by both Protestants and Catholics.

CULTURAL BACKGROUND

The data were examined for possible relationships between graduates' choices of college types, and selected factors identifiable in the graduates' cultural background. Table 56 contains a summary of the findings regarding three measures related to reading.

Nearly a fourth of private university students had reported as seniors that they owned more than 50 books, while only 11 per cent of the students in public two-year and public four- or five-year colleges had reported owning that many books. The private two-year colleges were lowest, with only 9 per cent of their students having reported owning more than 50 books. On the other hand, nearly half the students in the public two-year colleges had reported owning 10 or fewer books, and this proportion was nearly the same for students in the private two-year and public four- or five-year colleges. For all other types of colleges, the proportion of students who had reported owning 10 or fewer books was approximately one-third.

The distribution by college type was similar with regard to the opportunity for serious reading reported by the students as seniors in high school. Twenty-seven per cent of private university students had reported "quite a lot" of opportunity, while the figure for private two-year colleges was 11 per cent. Again public two-year colleges and extension centers fell in the mid-range, with 16 and 17 per cent, respectively, of the students in these institutions having reported "quite a lot" of opportunity for serious reading.

A highly complex set of relationships exists between the types of magazines read regularly, and types of colleges chosen. However, a distinction may again be drawn between private universities, which had the highest proportions of readers of cultural, news, and sports magazines, and private two-year colleges, which had the highest proportions of readers of special interest, religious, and pulp magazines. Not unexpectedly, among all types of colleges, magazines of general interest had the highest proportions of regular readers.

The relationship of musical tastes to college types (Table 57) is at least as complex as the relationship between reading patterns and college types. However, when consideration is limited to the proportions of students who reported themselves as liking classical or popular music "very much," certain general patterns appear. Considering men and women either separately or together, private universities, private four- or five-year colleges, and extension centers had the highest proportions of students who reported a strong liking for classical music, while public two-year and four- or five-year colleges had the lowest proportions of such students. The extension centers, public two-year and four- or five-year colleges had the largest proportions of students with a strong liking for popular music; the three types of private institutions had the smallest proportions. It is of interest that extension center students had a strong liking for both classical and popular music.

Private universities led in the proportion of students who discussed world affairs daily or frequently (Table 58). In this respect they were approached only by students entering a public university. Public and private two-year colleges had the highest percentage of students who never discussed such matters. Although not shown in this table, the data indicate that daily discussion was more prevalent among men than women, especially university men.

The data suggest, then, that the indices of cultural background used in this study discriminated to some extent among students who attended different types of colleges. On

Table 56

Graduates' Reading Habits in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Number of books owned									Amount of serious reading					Type of magazines regularly read*							
	Over 200	101-200	51-100	26-50	11-25	1-10	None	No response	Total	Quite a lot	Some	Little or none	No response	Total	Pulp	General interest	Sports	News	Special interest	Cultural	Religious	Other
Private 2-year	-	2	7	19	25	41	5	1	100	11	67	20	2	100	11	86	19	42	79	17	9	-
Private 4- or 5-year	2	4	10	20	26	33	3	2	100	21	56	20	3	100	2	87	33	48	59	20	8	1
Private university	6	7	11	18	23	29	3	3	100	27	52	18	3	100	5	80	40	62	44	30	5	2
Public 2-year	2	2	7	13	24	41	8	3	100	16	54	27	3	100	10	83	30	32	68	16	1	-
Extension center	1	6	11	16	28	34	3	1	100	17	58	23	2	100	5	88	36	28	64	13	3	2
Public 4- or 5-year	1	3	7	16	24	38	6	5	100	15	54	25	6	100	5	85	31	35	64	21	2	-
Public university	2	4	11	22	26	30	3	2	100	19	58	21	2	100	5	89	38	47	61	24	1	1

*Since respondents were not limited in number of magazines checked, the row percentages do not add to 100.

these indices, private universities rather consistently drew those students with the most sophisticated cultural background, while two-year colleges, both private and public, attracted those students whose cultural background was least sophisticated. It must be emphasized, however, that these relationships are decidedly not rigid, and that the rank-order of types of colleges shifts from measure to measure. Notwithstanding the variability of these relationships, the general trends clearly imply the need for colleges to be aware of the cultural levels of their entering students.

Table 57

Graduates' Musical Tastes in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Popular music				Classical music			
	Like very much	Like mod-erately or little	No response	Total	Like very much	Like mod-erately or little	No response	Total
Private 2-year	52	44	4	100	38	61	1	100
Private 4-5 year	56	41	3	100	41	56	3	100
Private university	57	40	3	100	42	55	3	100
Public 2-year	64	33	3	100	28	69	3	100
Extension center	64	34	2	100	40	58	2	100
Public 4-5 year	65	29	6	100	33	61	6	100
Public university	63	35	2	100	37	61	2	100

Table 58

Graduates' Frequency of Discussion of World Affairs in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Frequency of discussion					
	Daily or almost daily	Several times in several weeks	Once or twice in several weeks	Never in several weeks	No response	Total
Private 2-year	26	32	33	8	1	100
Private 4-5 year	25	38	28	6	3	100
Private university	38	35	22	3	2	100
Public 2-year	22	30	35	9	4	100
Extension center	20	39	35	5	1	100
Public 4-5 year	20	32	35	7	6	100
Public university	29	38	27	4	2	100

HIGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

Size of High School. The data were inspected to determine whether students from high schools of different sizes tended to go to different types of colleges. As far as could be determined, no relationship existed between these variables which could not be attributed to some other factor such as size of community, or presence of a college within the community.

Type of High School. Table 59 shows the extent to which each type of college drew its students from public as opposed to private high schools. As might be expected, the private four- or five-year college and the private university recruited larger percentages from private schools than did other types of institutions, but this was not true of the private two-year college. Public two-year colleges drew nearly 100 per cent of their students from the public schools.

Table 59

Control of High School Attended by
Type of College Graduates Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Type of high school control		
	Public	Private	Total
Private 2-year	93	7	100
Private 4- or 5-year	75	25	100
Private university	68	32	100
Public 2-year	99	1	100
Extension center	84	16	100
Public 4- or 5-year	92	8	100
Public university	93	7	100

HIGH SCHOOL FACULTY

The impact of high school teachers and counselors upon students' college planning was examined in terms of the types of colleges entered, to discover any relationships which might exist between these factors. Table 60 contains the figures relevant to this analysis. Of the students who entered universities (both public and private), those who entered private universities were more prone to have discussed the implications of college attendance with their high school teachers and counselors than were students who enrolled in any other type of college. Public and private two-year colleges, on the other hand, had the highest proportions of students who never discussed college with the high school faculty. Although not shown in this table, it was found that more women than men, especially university women, had discussed such matters "quite a lot." University students, private and public, had also received more encouragement to go to college, from the high school faculty, while public and private two-year college students had received the least. Encouragement, of course, may be related to the amount of discussion, though this cannot be inferred from these data. University women had received considerably more encouragement than men, while more two-year college men reported having received no encouragement at all.

These students had also been asked to report the extent to which high school teachers and counselors had actually influenced them to continue their education, as distinct from mere discussion and encouragement. Interestingly, it was the extension center students who felt that the high school teachers and counselors had influenced them to continue their education. Since these students received less encouragement and had less discussion about college than did other groups, this is somewhat surprising.

Table 60

Effect of High School Faculty on College Attendance Reported by Graduates by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Extent of discussion with teachers and counselors					Encouragement of college attendance by teachers and counselors					Influence of teachers and counselors				
	Quite a lot	Some	None	No response	Total	Quite a lot	Some	None	No response	Total	Quite a lot	Some	None	No response	Total
Private 2-year	14	67	18	1	100	46	38	15	1	100	17	42	40	1	100
Private 4- or 5-year	30	59	9	2	100	65	27	6	2	100	16	50	31	3	100
Private university	36	54	7	3	100	71	23	3	3	100	16	38	44	2	100
Public 2-year	18	67	13	2	100	46	42	10	2	100	17	50	31	2	100
Extension center	25	64	10	1	100	55	38	5	2	100	23	52	23	2	100
Public 4- or 5-year	23	61	11	5	100	54	34	7	5	100	16	50	29	5	100
Public university	34	58	6	2	100	69	24	5	2	100	16	46	36	2	100

PEERS

College Plans of Friends in General. As might be expected, university students and private four- or five-year college students led the way in having all or most of their friends planning college (Table 61). However, a large majority of students in all types of colleges reported that most or all of their friends were planning to go. Although not shown in the table, the proportions of students reporting that none of their friends were planning college were small in all cases.

Table 61

College Plans of Friends in General by Type of College Graduates Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Number of high school friends planning to attend college			
	None or some	Most or all	No response	Total
Private 2-year	32	67	1	100
Private 4- or 5-year	17	81	2	100
Private university	15	83	2	100
Public 2-year	26	72	2	100
Extension center	27	72	1	100
Public 4- or 5-year	21	74	5	100
Public university	14	84	2	100

HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

The majority of college students, as shown in Table 62, had taken a college preparatory course in high school. However, approximately 10 per cent of the students who entered both public and private universities and private four- or five-year colleges had not had the benefit of this type of preparation. In the public four- or five-year colleges this proportion exceeded one-third. Almost half the students in public two-year colleges had taken some program other than college preparatory. On the other hand, in the extension centers nearly three-fourths of the students had taken a college preparatory course and nearly 90 per cent of the students in the public and private universities had taken such a program.

Table 62

Graduates' Type of High School Program
by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Type of high school program taken					
	Voca-tional	Commer-cial, business	General	College prepar-atory	Unclas-sified	Total
Private 2-year	6	5	19	65	5	100
Private 4- or 5-year	1	3	8	82	6	100
Private university	-	2	7	87	4	100
Public 2-year	8	13	19	53	7	100
Extension center	3	8	13	72	4	100
Public 4- or 5-year	3	7	18	64	8	100
Public university	1	2	6	88	3	100

LIKING FOR HIGH SCHOOL

Graduates who had enjoyed their high school experiences were more likely to be college students than those who had not. But they were also more likely to set their sights on the universities and state colleges than on the two-year colleges. Table 63 shows that the private and public universities attracted higher proportions of students who liked high school "very much" than did any other type of college.

Women in all types of institutions were much more enthusiastic about high schools than were men, as the table shows. For public extension centers the difference is striking--49 per cent men versus 76 per cent women liked high school "very much." This discrepancy suggests the need for more intensive probing for explanations than was possible in this project.

Vocational Choice. Table 64 shows the proportions of men students for each category of vocational choice (expressed as high school seniors) who went to different types of colleges. A distinct relationship emerges, as might be expected, between choice of a prestige occupation and attendance at a public or private university. Even so, 26 per cent of those who chose such occupations went to the public two-year college.

Table 63

Graduates' Degree of Satisfaction with High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	N*	Liked very much	Liked pretty well	Neither liked nor disliked	Disliked	No response	Total
		Degree of satisfaction with high school					
Men							
Private 2-year	29	48	35	10	-	7	100
Private 4- or 5-year	327	55	37	3	3	2	100
Private university	129	61	30	3	3	3	100
Public 2-year	698	44	45	6	2	3	100
Extension center	168	49	41	4	2	4	100
Public 4- or 5-year	531	45	41	6	2	6	100
Public university	436	57	37	3	2	1	100
Women							
Private 2-year	52	60	38	2	-	-	100
Private 4- or 5-year	297	73	22	1	1	3	100
Private university	58	77	21	-	-	2	100
Public 2-year	549	61	33	3	-	3	100
Extension center	96	76	19	1	1	3	100
Public 4- or 5-year	552	64	27	3	1	5	100
Public university	284	74	18	3	1	4	100
Total							
Private 2-year	81	56	37	5	-	2	100
Private 4- or 5-year	624	63	30	2	2	3	100
Private university	187	66	27	2	2	3	100
Public 2-year	1247	51	40	5	1	3	100
Extension center	264	59	33	3	1	4	100
Public 4- or 5-year	1083	55	34	5	1	5	100
Public university	720	64	30	3	1	2	100

*Unless otherwise indicated, the numbers for tables used in this chapter are given here.

Table 64

Men Graduates' Vocational Choice in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Prof. I	Prof. II	Mgr.	Semi-prof.	Small business owner	Sales and clerical	Skilled	No response	Total
	Classification of vocational choice								
Private 2-year	28	28	-	7	3	-	7	27	100
Private 4- or 5-year	40	23	4	5	1	1	1	25	100
Private university	49	16	12	1	2	1	-	19	100
Public 2-year	26	18	4	10	1	2	6	33	100
Extension center	35	21	4	9	1	1	2	27	100
Public 4- or 5-year	22	26	5	6	1	2	4	34	100
Public university	54	16	5	3	1	1	3	17	100

Time of Vocational Decision. Table 65 suggests that there is some relationship between the time of making a vocational decision and the type of college entered. The percentages of students who reported having chosen a vocation in junior high school or earlier ranged from 13 in the private universities to 20 in the public universities. A number of students had not made a vocational choice by the end of their senior year in high school; this was the case for 12 per cent of the public university students at one extreme and 22 per cent of the private two-year college students at the other.

Time Graduates Made Their Vocational Choice
by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Time vocational choice was made							
	Not by end of senior year	During senior year	During junior year	Early high school	In junior high	Elementary school	No response	Total
Private 2-year	22	27	16	13	8	11	1	100
Private 4-5 year	16	25	20	19	10	8	2	100
Private university	14	31	22	17	6	7	3	100
Public 2-year	18	30	16	18	9	7	2	100
Extension center	16	33	15	20	9	5	2	100
Public 4-5 year	13	28	19	16	10	7	5	100
Public university	12	24	21	21	13	7	2	100

Expected Income at Age 40. Another index of students' aspirations was the income they expected to be earning by the age of forty. Table 66 shows the relationship of expected income to the type of institution attended. Private university students had the highest aspiration level in this respect, closely followed by public university students. Over half of these groups expected to have incomes above $10,000. By contrast, 20 per cent in the private two-year colleges expected to make less than $5,000. It should be noted that these figures mask large sex differences in income expectations. The modal expected income for men was $7,500 to $15,000, for women $5,000 to $10,000.

Table 66

Graduates' Expected Income at Age 40 by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Expected income at age 40								
	Less than $3,000	$3,000-5,000	$5,000-7,500	$7,500-10,000	$10,000-15,000	$15,000-20,000	Over $20,000	No response	Total
Private 2-year	6	14	20	28	17	8	1	6	100
Private 4-5 year	3	8	21	20	22	12	8	6	100
Private university	1	3	11	22	25	13	18	3	100
Public 2-year	2	10	25	26	18	7	5	7	100
Extension center	3	7	24	31	20	8	4	3	100
Public 4-5 year	1	10	29	27	16	6	3	8	100
Public university	1	3	13	24	26	14	12	5	100

Table 67

Graduates' Discussion of College Attendance with Parents in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Extent of discussion of college attendance			
	Quite a lot	Some	None, no response	Total
Men				
Private 2-year	59	35	6	100
Private 4- or 5-year	73	25	2	100
Private university	77	19	4	100
Public 2-year	60	35	5	100
Extension center	71	27	2	100
Public 4- or 5-year	65	28	7	100
Public university	78	20	2	100
Women				
Private 2-year	86	12	2	100
Private 4- or 5-year	81	16	3	100
Private university	89	7	4	100
Private 2-year	67	29	4	100
Extension center	80	17	3	100
Public 4- or 5-year	78	17	5	100
Public university	83	14	3	100
Total				
Private 2-year	77	20	3	100
Private 4- or 5-year	77	21	2	100
Private university	81	15	4	100
Public 2-year	63	32	5	100
Extension center	74	23	3	100
Public 4- or 5-year	72	22	6	100
Public university	80	18	2	100

COLLEGE PLANS

Parents' Encouragement of College. Students in private colleges and universities and in public universities tended to receive strong encouragement from both parents to go to college. On the whole, women received less encouragement than did men. But more women in private two-year schools than men had been urged by their parents to attend college. In contrast, many more men than women attending extension centers had received strong support from both parents.

Discussion with Parents. University students in both public and private institutions had the greatest amount of discussion with parents about college attendance (Table 67). Women tended to discuss the matter much more than men regardless of type of institution entered. Public two-year college students had the least extensive discussion of college attendance with parents.

Importance of College to Student. It might be expected that the amount of discussion of college with parents would be closely related to the students' own feelings about the importance of a college education. The figures in Table 68 indicate that this was only partly true. University students as a group tended to regard college as "extremely important." But students in private two-year colleges, three-quarters of whom had discussed the matter "quite a lot," were considerably more skeptical about the value of a college education. Only 56 per cent of this group thought college "extremely important," while 10 per cent thought it only "fairly important" and 6 per cent didn't care. Public two-year college students also showed less enthusiasm for college. These contrasts illustrate the complexity of students' reasons for attending college, and raise questions about the college performance of the unenthusiastic.

Table 68

Graduates' Perception of Importance of College Education
in High School by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Importance of a college education					Total
	Extremely important	Quite important	Fairly important	Don't care	No response	
Men						
Private 2-year	48	17	21	10	4	100
Private 4- or 5-year	70	22	4	2	2	100
Private university	81	15	2	-	2	100
Public 2-year	46	37	13	2	2	100
Extension center	56	36	6	1	1	100
Public 4- or 5-year	53	31	8	2	6	100
Public university	79	15	3	2	1	100
Women						
Private 2-year	59	33	4	4	-	100
Private 4- or 5-year	65	26	5	1	3	100
Private university	76	19	2	2	1	100
Public 2-year	40	39	15	4	2	100
Extension center	59	22	15	2	2	100
Public 4- or 5-year	51	35	8	2	4	100
Public university	68	24	5	-	3	100
Total						
Private 2-year	56	27	10	6	1	100
Private 4- or 5-year	68	24	5	1	2	100
Private university	79	17	2	-	2	100
Public 2-year	43	38	14	3	2	100
Extension center	57	31	9	2	1	100
Public 4- or 5-year	52	33	8	2	5	100
Public university	74	19	4	1	2	100

Time of Decision to Attend College. The majority of university students, especially private university students, decided while they were still in elementary school that they would attend college (Table 69). While this finding may be simply a reflection of socio-economic differences, it nonetheless suggests that the universities are recruiting largely from families for whom college is part of an accepted way of life. The tendency of women to make an earlier decision as noted in Chapter III is especially marked in the case of the women who entered universities. It will be noted that, of students who elected to attend extension centers and public two-year colleges, comparatively large proportions postponed the decision to go to college until their senior year.

Table 69

Time Graduates Made Their Decision to go to College
by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Time decision made to attend college							
	During senior year	During junior year	Early high school	In junior high	Elementary school	Don't know	No response	Total
Men								
Private 2-year	7	14	24	4	24	10	17	100
Private 4- or 5-year	11	10	23	18	33	2	3	100
Private university	9	7	15	16	49	2	2	100
Public 2-year	19	11	20	17	20	6	7	100
Extension center	23	14	21	19	14	4	5	100
Public 4- or 5-year	18	14	21	15	19	3	10	100
Public university	7	11	22	20	34	3	3	100
Women								
Private 2-year	13	10	21	8	40	4	4	100
Private 4- or 5-year	11	9	16	15	42	2	5	100
Private university	7	3	4	5	72	5	4	100
Public 2-year	17	10	18	16	28	3	8	100
Extension center	15	13	20	16	25	1	10	100
Public 4- or 5-year	12	9	19	19	32	2	7	100
Public university	4	6	14	18	52	2	4	100
Total								
Private 2-year	11	11	22	6	35	6	9	100
Private 4- or 5-year	11	9	20	17	37	2	4	100
Private university	8	6	11	13	56	3	3	100
Public 2-year	18	10	19	17	24	5	7	100
Extension center	20	14	20	18	18	3	7	100
Public 4- or 5-year	15	12	20	17	25	2	9	100
Public university	6	9	20	19	41	2	3	100

Preference for College Type and Size. While still in high school, the graduates indicated the type of institution they would prefer to enter. As Table 70 shows, many had to compromise on this point between the time of completing the questionnaire and actually entering college. The highest degree of congruence between type of college preferred and type of college attended is exhibited by public university students (79 per cent), closely followed by students in private universities and four- or five-year colleges (76 per cent for each), but the figures drop rather sharply for the other institutions. In the public four- or five-year colleges, 13 per cent would have preferred to go to the public university and 12 per cent to a private institution. The figures are similar for junior colleges, with an added 8 per cent who would have preferred a public four- or five-year college. Finally, only 26 per cent of students attending extension centers had previously chosen this form of education. Thirty-nine per cent would have preferred the public university.

Table 70

Type of College Preferred by Graduates by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college entered	Type of college preferred								
	Priv. 2-year	Priv. 4- or 5 year	Priv. univ.	Pub. 2-year	Extn. cent.	Pub. 4- or 5-year	Pub. univ.	Unclassified	Total
Private 2-year	46	19	1	9	-	5	7	13	100
Private 4- or 5-year	1	76	4	1	-	5	6	7	100
Private university	1	12	76	-	-	3	5	3	100
Public 2-year	1	4	4	58	-	8	13	12	100
Extension center	1	9	8	1	26	8	39	8	100
Public 4- or 5-year	1	9	3	1	-	61	13	12	100
Public university	1	4	7	1	1	3	79	4	100

Of seniors in the study, the number who expressed a desire to go out of town to college was nearly three times the number who preferred to attend a local college. However, of the graduates who actually did enter college, the ratio of preference was reduced to about two to one. The following observations concern those students who did enter (Table 71).

Table 71

Type of Local College in Community of Graduates by Preferred and Actual Locale of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Preferred and actual college locale	N	Communities by type of local college					
		Junior college	Extension center	State college	Multiple colleges	No college	Total
Preferred to go out of town							
Entered local public or private college	1664	39	15	32	14	-	100
Entered out-of-town college	1547	19	48	20	2	11	100
Preferred to stay home							
Entered local public or private college	751	37	13	29	21	-	100
Entered out-of-town college	121	19	50	16	3	12	100

About half of those who expressed the desire to go out of town actually did so. The others went, for the most part, to local junior and state colleges. As noted in another context, a large proportion of those going out of town came from the extension center communities, and this was true whether they preferred to go out of town or stay at home. For the junior college and state college communities, the percentages going to the local colleges were about the same for those wishing to go out of town as for those wishing to stay at home.

Of the 4206 students who entered college, 32 per cent had expressed a preference for a private institution, 65 per cent had elected a public institution, and 3 per cent gave no response. Among those beginning college students who originally preferred a private college, only 40 per cent eventually entered such a college as may be seen in Table 72. Only 8 per cent of the beginning college students who originally preferred a public institution did not actually matriculate in one. Additional data indicate that the greatest discrepancy between preferred type of college and the type actually entered existed among students who entered private two-year colleges and extension centers. Forty per cent of the private two-year college students would have preferred a public institution and 36 per cent of the extension center students would have preferred a private institution.

Table 72

Control of Preferred College by Control of College Graduate Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Control of college preferred	N	Control of college entered Private	Public	Total
Private	1676	40	60	100
Public	2384	8	92	100

Fifty-five per cent of the college group also indicated a preference for a small college, while 42 per cent expressed a liking for a large college. University students, especially those at the public university, tended to like large colleges. On the other hand, the students in private colleges definitely preferred small schools. There were only negligible sex differences among the students preferring various types of colleges whether public or private, or large or small.

Main Reason for Possibly Not Attending College. Table 73 shows the percentages of students within each type of college who checked the various reasons why they might not be able to attend. Again, lack of money was the reason most often quoted, even by students who subsequently did attend private four- or five-year colleges and universities. This finding is not entirely surprising in view of the rising costs of college education. Moreover, as has been pointed out in other contexts, at the professional and managerial levels--the people whose children go to private schools--"going to college" often means going to a specific college. If this was the viewpoint of some of these respondents, then the fact that many of them were afraid that financial reasons would prevent them from attending is understandable. More than half the students in extension centers, and almost half of those in public universities, also checked lack of money as the main reason for possibly not attending, whereas this reason was checked by only a third of those who subsequently entered public two-year colleges, and by less than a third of those who entered private two-year colleges. Among students who entered all types of colleges, there were a number who professed lack of interest or would have preferred to go to work or to marry. Inadequate financial resources appear to be still the major obstacle which prevents many students from attending college, and presumably gives rise to problems for many who do enter.

Table 73

Graduates' Main Reason for Possibly Not Attending College by Type of College Entered

(Reported in Percentages)

Type of college	Main reason for possibly not attending college									
	Poor grades	Not enough money	Prefer to work	Prefer to marry	Not interested	Military service	Health, catastrophe	Other	No response	Total
Private 2-year	22	27	15	15	9	-	1	4	7	100
Private 4- or 5-year	10	48	7	10	9	1	2	4	9	100
Private university	8	42	4	10	9	1	11	3	12	100
Public 2-year	18	33	17	10	12	1	1	3	5	100
Extension center	17	57	9	2	7	-	2	2	4	100
Public 4- or 5-year	13	39	12	12	10	1	2	3	8	100
Public university	11	43	8	10	10	1	5	3	9	100

PERSONALITY

Table 74 gives the standard means for both men and women on the five personality scales described in Chapter II. An overall view of the table indicates differences among the seven types of institutions on all of the five scales, but at the same time a great overlap exists. It may be noted that the rank order of the institutions is approximately the same on all scales, especially for the men. On each scale the private university enrolled students with the highest scores, the public university second highest, and the private two-year college the lowest. (The women were less consistent than the men.) For all scales, private university students tend to have the highest mean scores, followed by the public university and private four- or five-year college students.

The score profiles were tested for statistical differences among the various types of colleges for each sex. Five-component discriminant analysis was used for this purpose, a technique similar to the two-component discriminant analysis described in Chapter II. Since the personality profile of only five groups could be compared, all two-year college students were grouped together. Otherwise the college groups remained intact as noted in Table 74. The profile differences among the various types of colleges were significant well beyond the one per cent level.*

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*In this case the generalized Mahalanobis D^2 is interpreted as a chi-square value where df=N (G-1), and where N= the number of variables (five scales) and G= the number of groups being compared (students categorized by five types of colleges). On this basis, the statistics for the men read: df=20; D^2=85.57; p=<.001. The statistics for the women read: df=20; D^2=74.48; p=<.001.

Table 74

Graduates' Standard Mean Scores on Selected
Omnibus Personality Inventory Scales
Shown by Type of College Entered

Type of college	Complexity		Lack of Anxiety		Nonauthoritarianism		Social Maturity		Thinking Introversion	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Private 2-year										
Number	29	52	29	52	29	52	29	52	29	52
Mean	48.2	51.9	45.2	51.9	48.4	51.6	45.8	51.3	50.0	52.2
Private 4- or 5-year										
Number	327	297	327	297	327	297	327	297	327	297
Mean	50.5	50.9	51.5	52.1	51.2	50.8	50.8	52.2	54.8	55.3
Private university										
Number	129	58	129	58	129	58	129	58	129	58
Mean	51.7	57.2	53.2	52.6	54.0	57.2	53.9	59.0	56.7	59.5
Public 2-year										
Number	698	549	698	549	698	549	698	549	698	549
Mean	50.4	51.2	50.5	50.7	50.8	51.6	51.2	51.3	50.5	50.8
Extension center										
Number	168	96	168	96	168	96	168	96	168	96
Mean	48.7	52.0	50.5	52.1	48.4	51.6	48.5	49.7	52.1	55.0
Public 4- or 5-year										
Number	531	552	531	552	531	552	531	552	531	552
Mean	50.0	51.3	50.5	50.0	51.2	52.4	50.9	51.8	51.6	53.2
Public university										
Number	436	284	436	284	436	284	436	284	436	284
Mean	51.6	55.1	51.7	50.7	52.4	54.4	52.3	56.4	54.2	55.5

SUMMARY

Forty-three per cent of the total sample went to college, and of these, 55 per cent were men and 45 per cent women. Within the college sample, 55 per cent entered local public colleges or universities, 4 per cent entered local private colleges, and 41 per cent went to out-of-town public and private colleges. Public two-year and four- or five-year colleges enrolled 56 per cent of the college sample.

Students of all levels of ability were distributed through all types of colleges, but more students of high ability were found in private and public universities, and more students of low ability in public and private two-year colleges. Similar results are reported for selection of students by high school rank.

Father's occupation was an important variable in determining the type of college attended. Regardless of ability, children from professional and managerial families were most likely to enter universities and private colleges; students from low occupational levels, if they went to college at all, tended to go to public two-year colleges and extension centers.

Parental education was found to be associated with the type of college attended, and some sex differences were noted.

Religion also seemed to be related to college type. Jews were found predominantly in private and public universities, Catholics in public and private colleges. Fewer Catholics, especially Catholic women, and more Jews of both sexes attended college.

Generally speaking, the university student presented a picture which differs quite markedly from the two-year college student. The syndrome may be described by the term "academic concern." The university student was more likely to have been thinking about college since the days of elementary school, to have discussed it with his teachers and parents, and to have received advice and encouragement from them. He was also more intellectually oriented than the students entering two- and four-year colleges as indicated by scores on personality scales. In addition the university student may have decided while still in elementary school upon the type and size of college he would attend. His early choice of a vocation is often another aspect of the syndrome.

In contrast, the two-year college student was likely to have postponed the major decisions related to college and a career, to have shown far less concern about these matters while in high school, and to have received much less encouragement from teachers and parents.

CHAPTER V

PERSISTENCE AND PERFORMANCE DURING THE FIRST COLLEGE YEAR

Although a subsequent report will deal with the findings of the four year follow-up study of the entire sample,[1] certain data pertaining to the first-year record made by those who entered college immediately out of high school are presented here. Since the first college year is often a crucial one, information on how a diverse group of young people persists and performs during that year should be particularly helpful in completing the picture of college attendance generally. It should be noted that the persistence data collected in this phase of the study bear only on the first academic year and do not allow for dropouts between the first two college years.

It will be recalled that a total of 4206 graduates entered college in September, 1959. Through the excellent cooperation of the more than 400 colleges and universities which the graduates entered at that time, relevant information was made available as of the following June for 3892 students,[2] or 92.5 per cent of the original college group. The data are summarized briefly under the headings of persistence and performance.

PERSISTENCE

Table 75 shows the percentage of men and women who dropped out or completed the academic year. The fact that 83 per cent of such a diverse group finished a full year of college was rather surprising, although it may be expected that a considerable number of these students did not begin their second year as was found to be the case in the subsequent follow-up study to be reported later. A total of 12 per cent went no further than the end of one term. Differences were slight between the persistence rates of men and women.

Table 75

Graduates' Rate of Persistence During Their First College Year

(Reported in Percentages)

Persistence	Men N=2138	Women N=1754	Total N=3892
Did not finish first term	4	3	4
Dropped out at end of first term	9	8	8
Did not finish remainder of year	6	4	5
Finished full year	81	85	83
Total	100	100	100

Predictably, persistence through the first year was found to be related to ability, as indicated by SCAT-equivalent quintiles. Since more students from the higher ability categories than from the lower ability levels went to college in the first place, it might be expected that the higher levels would also supply a greater percentage of the dropouts. This was indeed the case as is evidenced by the fact that 57% of the entire college-going group was from ability quintiles I and II, and at the same time 42% of the group which did not complete the first year of college was found in the same two ability quintiles. It appears, then, that ability is no absolute criterion so far as persistence is concerned. On the other hand, the general relationship between ability and persistence is evident from the fact that of the total group completing a college year, 62 per cent came from the upper two quintiles combined, whereas only 19 per cent came from the lowest two quintiles which included 22 per cent of the original college-going group. This relationship may also be observed in Table 76 which shows persistence in college for each ability quintile. Of the top quintile only 12 per cent did not complete the first year, whereas for the lowest quintile the percentage was 35. Here there are some differences between men and women. As the ability level declines, a higher percentage of men than of women were among the non-completers.

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[1] Under OE Contract 1328.

[2] It will be noted that for some tables in this chapter, the total N varies from 3892. These variations result from the fact that the number of "No information" cases differs among the several variables examined.

Table 76

Graduates' Persistence in First College Year by Ability Quintiles

(Reported in Percentages)

Persistence	Ability quintiles					
	I (high)	II	III	IV	V (low)	No score available
Men	N=800	N=441	N=366	N=267	N=200	N=64
Did not finish	12	17	24	25	38	22
Finished	88	83	76	75	62	78
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=606	N=410	N=322	N=230	N=144	N=42
Did not finish	11	11	18	17	31	24
Finished	89	89	82	83	69	76
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=1406	N=851	N=688	N=497	N=344	N=106
Did not finish	12	14	21	22	35	23
Finished	88	86	79	78	65	77
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

The relationship of socioeconomic level to persistence was also examined. Although there was a marked overlap in the rate of persistence among the various groups shown in Table 77, nevertheless some differences did exist. When figures are combined, over 88 per cent of the students from Professional I and II homes finished their first college year and nearly 85 per cent of the students whose fathers were in small business, sales and clerical and skilled classifications finished their first year compared to 76 per cent whose fathers were in the semi- and unskilled categories. Differences by sex tended to be minimal except in the two categories of semi-professional workers and skilled workers or foremen, where the percentage rate for men completing the year was several points below that of women. While a more detailed analysis of college dropouts will be made in the study to follow, it may be hypothesized that young men from such homes are work-oriented to the extent that they are more likely to drop out of college to seek jobs than are women from the same type of home.

Table 77

Graduates' Persistence in First College Year by Fathers' Occupational Classification

(Reported in Percentages)

Persistence	Fathers' occupational classification								
	Prof. I	Prof. II	Mgr.	Semi-prof.	Small business owner	Sales and clerical	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled
Men	N=149	N=88	N=204	N=48	N=257	N=306	N=657	N=182	N=118
Did not finish	11	15	13	23	14	18	21	24	25
Finished	89	85	87	77	86	82	79	76	75
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=143	N=97	N=186	N=30	N=267	N=219	N=457	N=127	N=93
Did not finish	10	10	11	10	16	14	14	24	23
Finished	90	90	89	90	84	86	86	76	77
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=292	N=185	N=390	N=78	N=524	N=525	N=1108	N=309	N=211
Did not finish	11	12	12	18	15	16	18	24	24
Finished	89	88	88	82	85	84	82	76	76
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Since both ability and socioeconomic status appear to be related to persistence in college, these two variables were held constant simultaneously in order to determine which factor had the greater relationship to persistence in the first year of college. Thus, in Table 78 the persistence of students from three occupational levels (high, middle, and low), as used in previous sections of this report, is shown in relation to three ability levels. As may be seen, the students from high occupational level homes were most likely to persist, regardless of ability level. On the other hand, as would be expected, the higher the ability, the greater was the percentage from any given occupational level who persisted. From among the students in the highest two ability quintiles, 91 per cent of those from high occupational level homes finished the first year whereas of those from the same ability level but from a low occupational level only 82 per cent completed. While the percentage of those completing, from all occupational levels, declined as the ability level went down, the higher the occupational level the greater was the likelihood that students would complete the first college year. In fact, the percentage of graduates from high occupational level homes but of low ability who completed the first year was exactly the same as for those from low occupational level homes but of high ability. Thus, despite the relative importance of ability, the socioeconomic factor plays a major role in determining persistence, as well as in determining actual college attendance.

Table 78

Graduates' Persistence in First College Year by Ability Quintiles and Fathers' Occupational Level

(Reported in Percentages)

Ability level and fathers' occupational level	N	Did not finish	Finished	Total
Men				
Highest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	305	10	90	100
Middle occupational level	728	14	86	100
Low occupational level	151	18	82	100
Middle ability quintile				
High occupational level	61	18	82	100
Middle occupational level	240	23	77	100
Low occupational level	46	30	70	100
Lowest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	68	19	81	100
Middle occupational level	259	30	70	100
Low occupational level	84	38	62	100
Women				
Highest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	276	8	92	100
Middle occupational level	585	11	89	100
Low occupational level	90	18	82	100
Middle ability quintile				
High occupational level	71	17	83	100
Middle occupational level	185	16	84	100
Low occupational level	39	28	72	100
Lowest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	66	17	83	100
Middle occupational level	179	19	81	100
Low occupational level	84	25	75	100
Total				
Highest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	581	9	91	100
Middle occupational level	1313	13	87	100
Low occupational level	241	18	82	100
Middle ability quintile				
High occupational level	123	17	83	100
Middle occupational level	425	20	80	100
Low occupational level	85	29	71	100
Lowest two ability quintiles				
High occupational level	134	18	82	100
Middle occupational level	438	26	74	100
Low occupational level	168	32	68	100

Table 79

Graduates' Standard Mean Scores on Selected Omnibus Personality Inventory Scales Shown by Persistence in the First Year of College

Persistence	Complexity		Lack of Anxiety		Nonauthoritarianism		Social Maturity		Thinking Introversion	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Did not finish										
Number	362	255	357	253	362	255	362	255	362	225
Mean	50.9	52.7	49.3	49.5	50.0	51.6	50.9	51.5	50.8	51.6
Finished										
Number	1623	1431	1611	1426	1623	1431	1623	1431	1623	1431
Mean	50.4	51.9	51.5	51.2	51.2	52.4	51.2	52.7	52.9	53.9

Next considered was the relationship of persistence to certain personality traits, as measured by five scales of the Omnibus Personality Inventory (Table 79). On the basis of the descriptions of the traits measured by the scales, it was hypothesized that students persisting in college would tend to score higher than would dropouts, on each of the five scales. Conversely, under this hypothesis, dropouts would tend to have low scores; that is, they would tend to be less attracted by, or exhibit less tendency toward, certain patterns of thought and attitude frequently associated with college life.

When the hypothesis was tested statistically, it was found that means did differ significantly on the whole. The total profiles of the two groups were compared without regard to individual scales by using discriminant analysis as described in Chapter II. The over-all profile differences between the two groups were statistically different beyond the one per cent level for both sexes.[3] However, when tested separately, the measures of Complexity and Social Maturity did not differentiate between the dropouts and persisters.

Thus, the evidence is that students persisting through the first college year, when compared with dropouts, tended to have less anxiety, to be less rigid and conventional in their thinking, and to have greater liking for reflective thought. The two groups were not differentiated with regard to social maturity or liking for the complex. It should be noted, however, that the next report of the study of these students will show that there are much larger differences on these personality scales over a period of four years between dropouts and those who complete four years of college.

Rates of persistence were next examined in relation to the various types of colleges in which the students were enrolled. It was found that 69 per cent of those who had dropped out had attended a public two-year or a public four- or five-year college. As shown in Table 80, the extension centers had the highest percentage (26 per cent) of students not completing the first year. Next highest in order of attrition were the public two-year and public four- or five-year institutions where the percentages were 22 and 21 respectively. Persistence rates in other types of institutions were considerably higher. It should be noted that these comparisons do not take into account mid-year transfers, which presumably are more common in the three types of institutions shown here to have the lowest persistence rate. Apparently the non-selective feature characterizing many of the public colleges also contributed to the higher attrition.

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[3] For men, df = 5,594; F = 5.20; $p = <.001$. For women, df = 5,594; F = 4.74; $p = <.001$.

Table 80

Graduates' Persistence in First College Year by Type of College Attended

(Reported in Percentages)

Persistence	Private 2-year	Private 4- or 5-year	Private university	Public 2-year	Extension center	Public 4- or 5-year	Public university
	Type of college attended						
Men	N=23	N=301	N=118	N=649	N=154	N=501	N=392
Did not finish	13	11	9	23	29	25	11
Finished	87	89	91	77	71	75	89
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Women	N=49	N=275	N=52	N=502	N=93	N=521	N=262
Did not finish	6	10	6	20	22	17	8
Finished	94	90	94	80	78	83	92
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	N=72	N=576	N=170	N=1151	N=247	N=1022	N=654
Did not finish	8	11	8	22	26	21	10
Finished	92	89	92	78	74	79	90
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Persistence was also found to be related to the major declared by the students at the point of college entrance. It was found that the highest first year attrition group (25 per cent) were the declared terminal students, most of whom were in public two-year institutions. Next in rank (22 per cent) was the group with a business major. Those with declared majors in the natural sciences showed the greatest tendency to remain in college, with only 9 per cent failing to complete the first year. Again, it is hoped that later analyses will provide more meaningful data concerning the relationship of majors to dropouts when studied over a longer period of time. A difficulty of such analyses when limited only to the first year is the tentative nature of commitments to majors. However, general information of the kind reported above at least gives some clue to the fields in which the percentage of dropouts is likely to be comparatively high.

PERFORMANCE

It was naturally considered important to observe the academic success of the graduates who entered college, in terms of their first-year grades. Thus, from an analysis of transcripts of the 3216 students who remained in college for a full year, data were compiled on the cumulative grade point averages of the students. Several variables were used in further analyzing the data. These included ability, father's occupation, personality traits, and type and locale of the college attended.

As expected, the relationship of ability to performance was apparent. From Table 81 it may be observed that about half the students in the top ability quintile obtained grades in the upper 40 per cent of the grade distribution in either local colleges or out-of-town colleges attended by the graduates. Although the comparisons are not shown on the table, there were differences in the grade point averages between men and women by ability groupings with the women from high ability groups consistently earning higher grades than the men from the same group.

Table 81

Distribution of Cumulative Grade Point Averages in the First College Year by Locale of College Graduates Attended and Their Ability Quintiles

(Reported in Percentages)

Locale of college attended and ability quintile	N	College performance: Cumulative GPA in quintiles*						
		4.00-2.85 I	2.84-2.38 II	2.37-2.04 III	2.03-1.66 IV	1.65-0.00 V	No information	Total
Attended local college								
I (high)	747	25	22	12	11	10	20	100
II	546	16	17	17	14	16	20	100
III	493	8	13	13	20	17	29	100
IV	347	5	8	14	18	27	28	100
V (low)	293	3	6	11	13	24	43	100
No score available	75	5	12	17	8	19	39	100
Attended out-of-town college								
I (high)	759	27	22	15	13	8	15	100
II	356	14	15	19	20	15	17	100
III	253	8	16	15	21	16	24	100
IV	180	2	12	14	25	26	21	100
V (low)	95	4	10	15	16	15	40	100
No score available	62	8	15	11	18	6	42	100

*The intervals used here are quintiles of the actual distribution of GPA's earned by all graduates who completed the first college year.

SUMMARY

In this chapter has been presented an overview of the persistence and performance during the first college year of 3892 students. Eighty-three per cent of the students completed the first college year; completion itself was related to higher ability levels, to higher socioeconomic status, and to lack of anxiety, nonauthoritarianism, and reflective thinking. Persistence tended to be greatest in private institutions, lower in public two-year and four- or five-year institutions and lowest in extension centers. An association appeared to exist between persistence and declared major. Not surprisingly, academic performance was found to be related to ability, to sex, and to socioeconomic level. Some of the differences in persistence and performance, such as the higher grade point averages of the students who attended out-of-town colleges, probably result from the various selective factors discussed in preceding chapters, and hence may not be directly attributable to the type of college or to college locale.

Both persistence and performance will be examined in much greater detail in a subsequent report.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

As stated in the Introduction, the primary purpose of the research (under USOE Cooperative Research Project No. 438, SAE 8136) was to investigate the immediate careers of high school graduates and to note possible relationships between the graduates' pursuits and their personal characteristics, family background, and various environmental factors. An area of major concern was the identification of factors which appear to bear on college attendance, especially as these varied from one community to another according to the types of public college(s) located in the community.

Fourteen midwestern communities with similar demographic and industrial features were selected; four of these each had a public junior college, four a state college, four a university extension center, and two had no public college of any kind. For comparative purposes, two California communities were also included, one having a junior college, the other a multiplicity of colleges of various types.

Some 10,000 students constituting the graduating class in the high schools within these sixteen communities responded to a comprehensive questionnaire in the spring of 1959 immediately before graduation. In addition, such data as scores on academic aptitude tests, performance on a personality inventory, and rank in class were procured. All graduates were followed up in the fall of 1959 and all those who entered college were followed up through their respective colleges in the summer of 1960.

The final sample of 9778 graduates was predominantly Caucasian and, as judged by comparisons with national data, was representative of the general population with regard to sex and to the occupational level of the father. The majority of students came from Protestant families, a fourth were Catholics, and the remainder belonged to a variety of groups, including those of Jewish faith.

While in high school, 40 per cent of the graduates had pursued a college preparatory program, 23 per cent a general program, 20 per cent a commercial, and 9 per cent a vocational curriculum. Men predominated in the college preparatory, general, and vocational programs, while women predominated in the commercial program. About half the graduates were enthusiastic about their high school experience, although the graduates who followed a college preparatory course were more inclined than others to indicate such enthusiasm. A third of the graduates indicated they were interested in an occupation at the professional level. Men tended to prefer their own business, or a job in a large firm or organization, while women elected to work in small business firms, schools, and hospitals. Most graduates believed that their parents were concerned about their choice of a vocation, but it was clear that more of the fathers at high occupational levels showed greater concern than fathers at low occupational levels. Graduates themselves considered "getting ahead" to be of primary importance, and expected their future standard of living to be higher than that of their parents.

Forty-three per cent of the sample entered a bona fide college in the fall following graduation and one third went directly into employment. The two major reasons cited by students for not attending college were inadequate financial resources and a preference for work. Scholastic ability was definitely related to college attendance, but even so, one quarter of the men and one third of the women in the top quintile of ability did not continue their education. High school rank was also closely related to college going. But more important than either ability or high school record in determining college attendance, was the occupational level of the father as is evidenced by the fact that college entrance ranged from 72 to 78 per cent in the top three occupational categories, and from 28 to 37 per cent in the three lowest categories. In fact, more students of low ability from high socioeconomic homes entered college than did high ability students from low socioeconomic homes. Inspection of the data suggested that some of the major differences were a function of disparities in the value systems of occupational groups as much as of the actual occupational level. The father's position in the occupational heirarchy seemed to affect daughters even more than sons, suggesting that, as other studies have shown, among the lower income groups education is valued more for men than for women. Even at the higher levels, of those who did continue their education, more women than men entered special training schools.

Almost as important as the father's occupation was the educational attainment of the mother, especially at the high occupational levels. At the lower levels, mothers' influence tended to be more negative than positive, especially for their daughters. Whether the mothers were employed appeared to have little bearing on the outcome, but the size of the family had some relationship. Absence of either parent had a detrimental effect on college attendance, especially where women were concerned. Women in military service had the greatest incidence of parents deceased or separated.

Among the indices of cultural background, the ones which differentiated most strikingly at all occupational levels between the college and non-college populations were the amount of serious reading reportedly done by the parents, (to a lesser extent the amount of reading by the graduates themselves) and the frequency of the graduates' discussion of world affairs with friends and family.

Vocational aspirations were closely associated with college attendance. Also of great importance was the concern expressed by parents in their children's extended education. In general, mothers were more concerned than fathers, and the least concern was shown by fathers of the military service, unemployed, and homemaking groups. Parental encouragement of college was found to be very important in determining whether a student would attend.

Five scales from the Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI), which were administered to the total sample, differentiated between students who did and did not enter college, and among students entering various types of colleges. College students, particularly those who entered private colleges and private and public universities, tended to be higher on all scales, especially Nonauthoritarianism and Thinking Introversion.

A factor which clearly had a bearing on whether certain graduates went immediately to college was the type of public college, if any, in the community. As had been hypothesized, graduates in communities with public junior colleges were the most likely to continue their education and the communities with state colleges were next in order. The relative impact of the junior college on men and on young people from low socioeconomic homes, particularly those with high ability, was striking.

Of the total group which went to college, 55 per cent entered local public institutions, 4 per cent entered local private colleges, and 41 per cent went away to college. As would be expected, scholastic ability and socioeconomic level were important factors in determining the type of college entered. Private four-year colleges and both public and private universities tended to draw heavily from high ability groups and from graduates whose fathers were employed in high-ranking occupational categories. Half the graduates who entered private universities and a third of those in public universities and private four- or five-year colleges came from professional and managerial families. Over 40 per cent of those who went away to college were at the very top of their high school class, whereas only 26 per cent of those who enrolled in local public colleges ranked at this level. However, this was more true for men than for women since women of high ability were more evenly distributed among all types of colleges.

Closely related to occupational status and exerting a similar influence, was the educational attainment of the parents. College-educated parents tended to send their children to either a private or a public university. Students in junior colleges and extension centers tended to have parents who had only a high school education or less. Again, this was more true for women than for men.

Religious preference was also part of the general syndrome associated with type of college attended. Jews tended to enroll in out-of-town universities, whereas Catholics entered junior and state colleges, private colleges and universities, and special schools. Private universities and colleges drew heavily from private high schools, whereas the junior college group was recruited almost entirely from public high schools. In general, students entered the type of college for which they had indicated a preference while still in high school, although a number who preferred to attend a university went to junior college. About twice as many had preferred to go out of town to college as did go.

Of the students who entered college in the fall following graduation, 83 per cent finished the academic year. Persistence was found to be related to ability, socioeconomic status, and to certain personality traits, with those students of high ability and socioeconomic status and those who tended to be free from anxiety and authoritarianism and who liked reflective thinking being the most likely to persist. Performance in terms of grades was also related to ability and socioeconomic status. Women made better academic records than did men.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

As has been stated, this study was undertaken in an effort to shed some light on what is conceded to be a national problem, namely, the conservation and development of human resources through the education of young people at the post-high school level. Given the premise that modern society demands the optimum development of each individual, it could be presumed that for an increasing percentage of high school graduates some form of continuing formal education is desirable. The many studies made in the last few years of the percentage of able high school graduates who do not continue their education undoubtedly stemmed from this assumption. While this study was not based on the idea that every graduate should go to college, there was the desire to add to the fund of knowledge some additional facts on how graduates distribute themselves among college and non-college pursuits with some possible explanation of such distribution. Thus an effort was made to examine the many factors which may bear on whether a high school diploma leads a graduate to college immediately and, if so, to what type of college and with what results.

The findings suggest that the factors associated with college attendance are multiple, complex, and interrelated. Other studies have documented the fact that many high ability and high-performing graduates do not attend college and the further fact that lack of money is often a stated reason for their not attending. But these two factors, when taken either separately or together, do not always explain why certain individuals do or do not continue their education. There is evidence that the percentage of graduates at all ability levels who enter college is increasing and that many young people from middle and low socioeconomic levels are finding their way to a college campus. Even so, many with a high or reasonably high potential are not there. And many from the various ability levels who are there may not find a program suitable to their interests and aptitudes.

A factor of apparent significance in determining the outcome of a student's career after high school is the role of the family. Its pervasive influence is seen in its many facets--the socioeconomic and educational status of the parents, the home's cultural background, the religious preference of the family, the advice and encouragement given by parents, and their aspirations for their children. Many of these factors suggest that the value placed upon education by the family unit becomes the mainspring of the motivational pattern which affects college attendance. This may suggest that a big task remains to be performed in the United States, namely, increasing the appreciation of young people and their parents for a new set of values concerning education beyond high school. Various elements undergird such a proposal. Certainly higher education should not be sold as a cheap and easy commodity with the sole purpose of assuring upward mobility and economic advantage. On the other hand, it likely cannot be presented effectively solely for its cultural and civic values. In this connection a much greater awareness than now exists must be developed in the American public of the impact of technology. Young people undoubtedly should be made increasingly aware of the principles underlying changing economic conditions and the manner in which technology differentially affects occupational groups.

Many agencies bear a responsibility in this task: civic and community groups, industrial and professional associations, and schools and colleges. Counselors and teachers in high schools have a particularly significant role to play in making students aware of pending social and economic changes. Yet it is possible that at present much of the vocational and educational counseling in both high schools and colleges is unrealistic in terms of changes to come within the next decade. Obviously, in determing what these changes may be and their implications, school and college personnel need the assistance of many outside groups.

Another set of findings of significance are those pertaining to the characteristics of students who enroll in various types of colleges. The data document once again the fact that colleges differ tremendously in the students they attract. Differences among general types of colleges, although not necessarily among individual institutions within types, lie in the socioeconomic level and in the family and cultural background of students as much as and often more than in ability level. The fact that students with financial and cultural advantages distribute themselves generously among private colleges and universities and, to a lesser extent, among state universities suggests that these three types of institutions obligate themselves to serve a student body very different from that generally found in local public institutions. The majority of students who enter the latter type of colleges, whether these be state-supported four-year institutions or public junior colleges, are from the less advantaged homes. Such a situation has implications for curriculum, instruction, and student personnel services in each type of institution, since student backgrounds and other characteristics should be important determinants of programs and services. This would be true even if the objectives of a college education were confined to imparting knowledge and to developing skills and abilities. But with the emerging national concern about the impact of college on attitudes, values, and other aspects of an individual's overall worth to himself and society, an awareness on the part of the college of the backgrounds of its particular student population seems all the more necessary.

The differences in the students enrolled in various types of colleges suggest additional responsibilities for high school counselors. These include their becoming sharply aware of how colleges differ in the characteristics of the students they enroll and in the real differences among colleges as to programs offered. There is increasing concern about the most appropriate matching of colleges and students, and the high school counselor is in the final analysis the best person to assist this matching process. Obviously, an understanding of the complex and interrelated issues pertaining to college attendance, including accurate information about the nonintellectual as well as intellectual characteristics of students, is necessary in this process. The problem of counseling the college-bound student is further complicated by the fact that an increasing percentage of students aiming toward a baccalaureate degree are beginning their work in a junior college. A recent study of junior college transfer students led to the conclusion that counseling about college attendance and transfer should be viewed as a continuing activity through high school through the junior college and into the senior institution.[1] Thus, high school counselors must help students plan their educational career so that after their junior college experience they can enter the four-year institution most appropriate for them.

Individual colleges and universities also have a responsibility not only for understanding the background of their own students but for providing educational experiences that take the students' characteristics into consideration. Undoubtedly, one of the dangers in American higher education is that because of its magnitude it will become so impersonal that individual growth and development will be minimized. The tragedy of this possibility is serious enough for the advantaged young people who continue their education beyond high school but it is even more serious for the less advantaged who hopefully will move from school to college in increasing numbers.

An entirely different facet of the problem lies in the findings concerning the role of various types of local public colleges in democratizing higher education. The data concerning the relative influence of local public junior colleges on the percentage of youth who enter college speak for themselves. They should have special significance for state-wide planning agencies, legislative bodies, and individual communities all of which are concerned with the development of a state pattern of higher education which maximizes opportunity. The fact that state colleges ranked second in their influence on college attendance is significant but it may be less so now than when the data were collected. In the last few years the majority of four-year public colleges that previously operated on what was essentially an open-door policy have become increasingly selective in admissions. Many of them have moved toward "university" status, at least in name, with all that such a move implies as far as admission standards and program are concerned. Since this comes at a time when major state universities, as well as most private institutions, are becoming more selective, access to higher education in the United States is likely to be increasingly restricted unless there is an expansion of some type of open-door institution such as the local junior college.

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[1] Dorothy M. Knoell and Leland L. Medsker, Factors Affecting Performance of Transfer Students From Two- to Four-Year Colleges. Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, Berkeley, 1964.

It is to be recalled that in the communities with junior colleges a higher percentage of graduates of high ability, particularly men, continued their education than in other college-type communities. While these graduates were eligible for admission to selective institutions, it apparently was the presence of a junior college in the community which encouraged them to continue in school. Thus, the junior college should be viewed as an institution with broader purposes than merely affording an opportunity for graduates who cannot be admitted elsewhere.

Comparative data on the impact of the junior college and the university extension center also bear comment. The fact that in communities with university extension centers a much smaller percentage of high school graduates continued their education than was true in communities with junior colleges would seem to be sufficient reason for state planning agencies to consider seriously the relative merit of the two types of local institutions in meeting post-high school needs in the decade ahead. The very fact, however, that the local public two-year college is likely to be the more effective means of meeting these needs and of democratizing higher education, poses a peculiar problem for states as they plan ahead. Since the very existence of a junior college in a given community encourages more young people to go on to college, expanding the number of such colleges only accentuates the college population problem by adding to the number of potential students. Thus, state planning agencies are, in a sense, placed in an anomalous position which necessitates their weighing the relative merits of two attitudes toward higher education. On the one hand, a state may choose to increase its overall load in higher education by relying on the type of institution which encourages more people to go to college, while on the other hand, it may choose a more conservative method which would serve only those students who would normally be expected to attend. Although the values of society will in the long run dictate the bases for decision-making on this point, it hardly seems feasible to follow any program other than one which maximizes the opportunity for additional youth to continue their education.

It is obvious that while the findings suggest a significant role for the junior college in American higher education, they also imply sobering responsibilities for it. Not the least of these is its problem in providing an educational climate as well as a range of programs which can differentially serve its increasingly diverse student body. The current impetus given to vocational and technical education by recent legislation raises new questions concerning the junior college role in this area of education. Whether it can or will serve as an important medium for this type of education and thus remain a comprehensive institution may be abundantly evident within the next few years. This and other problems of a similar nature will be investigated in a new nation-wide study of the two-year college soon to be initiated by the Center for the Study of Higher Education under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

There are also tentative conclusions to be drawn from the analyses of the college students in the sample who failed to persist through the first year. The fact that the dropouts came primarily from lower socioeconomic homes, from low ability groups, from groups with rigid, less introspective personality traits, and from among students in nonselective institutions opens the door to further inquiry concerning the marginal college student and what may be done to increase his chance for success. Such an inquiry is not a simple matter, however, due to the evidence that factors affecting persistence are exceedingly complex. For example, the finding that despite the positive relationship between ability and persistence, many able students did not complete their first year of college is important. Also, the finding that the greatest incidence of attrition was found in extension centers, which tend to be more selective than public junior colleges, suggests that selectivity of students attending college at the local level may not be as important as the type of program in accounting for attrition.

A further exploration of the factors related to persistence has been made in the longer follow-up study of the sample, the findings from which will be reported subsequently. It is believed that the longer view of students dropping out, many of whom re-enrolled in the same institution or another college, will lead to more valid conclusions than are warranted by concentrating on first-year dropouts.

In fact, while all the findings herein reported are basic in that they both describe the sample and note relationships between the many variables and the pursuits of the graduates in the first year after high school--a period when the move from school to college is of great importance--they will naturally be enriched by the findings from the subsequent study. The report of that study not only will include information on the pattern of flow in and out of college over a four-year period, as related to the many independent variables, but will also summarize the changes in attitudes and values during the period of a sample of both non-college and college individuals in the original group. The report will also be enriched by the results of interviews with a sample of 500 graduates from the original group.

The interrelatedness of the factors pertaining to college attendance and performance is not only intriguing but is of great importance to those who hold positions of responsibility in connection with the nation's youth. Hopefully, this study has contributed toward a better understanding of what pursuits graduates tend to follow immediately after high school and to some extent why they choose those pursuits. But the problem will remain significant and will always bear further investigation. It is for this reason that other studies now in the planning stage at the Berkeley Center will explore in greater magnitude the multiple and intricate problems of flow from school to and through college.

APPENDIX A

SELECTION OF THE COMMUNITIES

The study here reported was designed primarily to investigate the relationship of college attendance to the type of college within a number of communities. In order to eliminate as far as possible community differences which might affect college attendance, it was important that the major demographic and industrial characteristics of the communities chosen to participate in the survey be as comparable as possible.

In general, "community" was defined as a municipality with a population ranging from approximately 25,000 to approximately 100,000. The study was largely confined to the Midwest for two reasons: 1) Only in this area could there be found a sufficient sample of certain types of public colleges that were considered important in the study on which the influence of private higher education would not be unduly great, and 2) by concentrating the study in this section of the nation, it was possible to eliminate undue cultural diversity that might otherwise exist, particularly in the South.

It was originally decided that four communities should each contain a public junior college, four a university extension center, four a relatively unselective college, and at least two with no public college of any type. Later it was decided to include a community in California containing a junior college so that college attendance could be more closely scrutinized in a state which places heavy emphasis on the junior college. At the same time it was recommended that a metropolitan community be added to the list so that a city containing a variety of public higher institutions could be compared to the others.

The entire public school senior class was included in the sample in all communities except the metropolitan city where seniors were surveyed in three high schools representing a demographic cross-section as determined by the superintendent of schools. Private and parochial classes were included where these schools were deemed to enroll a significant number of a community's students, again with the exception of the metropolitan area. As a result, 37 high schools were represented in the sample.

The communities chosen fell within certain industrial, economic and ethnic limits. For example, communities were selected with some diversity of industrial and business enterprises; with no more than 75 per cent of the population classified as belonging either to the blue- or white-collar class; with neither an unusually high nor an unusually low level of education among the adult population; with no unusually large number of private colleges; and with no other public colleges within commuting distance.

Approximately 50 communities were originally investigated. The final selection was narrowed to 16 communities, all roughly comparable (except the metropolitan area) in terms of the criteria reported below, and each possessing one of the types of colleges under consideration, with the exception of the communities containing no college. Following are the characteristics on which the selection was finally based.[1]

(1) Population. For the 15 "basic" communities the population range in the 1950 census, was 22,467 to 115,911, with a median of 40,517. The population of the metropolitan community was 775,357.

(2) Percentage engaged in white-collar occupations. The percentage of the population engaged in white-collar occupations ranged from 31 to 50 per cent with a median of 44 per cent. In the metropolitan community, the percentage was 53.

(3) Per cent of population engaged in manufacturing. With the exception of one community for which information was not available (because its population fell below

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[1] The community characteristics were derived from the following sources: (1) Editor & Publisher 1958 Market Guide, Editor & Publisher Company, Inc., New York, 1957; (2) A Statistical Abstract Supplement: County and City Data Book, 1956, United States Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1957; (3) A Report of the 17th Decennial Census of the U. S. Population: 1950, Volume II, United States Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1952.

(25,000[2]), the range in the percentages of the population engaged in manufacturing was 6.9 to 56.2, with a median of 34.3. In the metropolitan community, the percentage of those engaged in manufacturing was 16.9 per cent.

(4) Per cent of population engaged in trade. The percentage of the population engaged in trade, primarily in sales and retail, again with the exception of the one community for which no information was available, ranged from 15.1 to 34.5 with a median of 21.6. In the metropolitan community, 25.5 per cent of the population was engaged in trade. The breakdown of the percentage of the population engaged in manufacturing and trade as defined by the U. S. Bureau of the Census was considered a sufficient index of the economic composition of each community since the remainder of the labor force in all communities would be primarily engaged in the white-collar occupations indicated above or in peripheral service and clerical occupations.

(5) Types of principal industries. The median number of types of principal industries for the fifteen communities was 5 with a range of 4 through 9. The one large metropolitan community had 8 principal types of industries.

(6) Median salary. The median salary for all the communities, based on the median within each city, was $3,335. The median salary in the communities ranged from $2,600 to $4,374 except for the metropolitan community where the median was $3,923.

(7) Median grade of education completed by those 25 years or over. The median grade level of education completed by those 25 years or over for all of these communities combined was 10 years; the range of grades completed for this group among the communities was between 9.2 and 11.5 years. In the case of the metropolitan community, the median grade was 11.7.

(8) Ethnicity. The percentage of foreign-born white, both male and female, ranged from 1 to 15, with a median of 4. The metropolitan community had the largest percentage of foreign-born white, namely 16 per cent. In two communities no Negro population was reported. The range of the Negro population in the remaining communities extended from 2 to 8 per cent, with a median of 4 per cent. Six per cent of the population was reported Negro in the large metropolitan community.

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[2] This community was Freeport, and information pertaining to the percentage engaged in manufacturing in the county was 25 per cent.

Appendix Table 1

Characteristics of Participating Communities

Community	Type of local college	Number of participating high schools	Population	Per cent white-collar	Per cent manufacturing	Per cent trade	Number of types of principal industries	Median salary	Median grade completed	Per cent foreign-born white	Per cent Negro
Altoona, Pennsylvania	Extension center	2	77,177	35	11.0	21.5	8	$2,907	9.5	5	-
Bakersfield, California	Junior college	3	34,784	33	6.9	27.6	4	4,374	11.5	6	4
Danville, Illinois	Junior college	1	37,864	44	24.6	24.6	5	3,292	9.2	2	8
Eau Claire, Wisconsin	State college	2	36,058	44	34.3	23.6	5	3,670	10.8	4	-
Freeport, Illinois[a]	None	1	22,467	46	-	-	3	3,064	9.4	4	3
Hutchinson, Kansas	Junior college	1	33,575	47	16.5	30.9	7	3,147	11.0	2	3
Joplin, Missouri	Junior college	1	38,711	50	16.0	34.5	5	2,600	9.9	1	2
Kalamazoo, Michigan	State college	4	57,704	44	39.1	19.8	4	3,593	10.7	7	4
Lorain, Ohio	None	1	51,202	31	56.2	15.1	4	3,681	9.5	15	5
Muncie, Indiana	State college	3	58,479	37	44.4	20.3	4	3,335	10.0	1	8
Port Huron, Michigan[b]	Junior college	1	35,725	44	34.7	21.6	4	3,472	10.1	10	3
Racine, Wisconsin	Extension center	4	71,193	39	55.2	16.7	5	4,051	9.5	12	4
San Francisco, Calif.	Variety of colleges	3	775,357	53	16.9	25.5	8	3,923	11.7	16	6
South Bend, Indiana	Extension center	5	115,911	47	50.8	18.0	5	4,349	10.1	8	7
Springfield, Missouri	State college	3	66,731	49	13.9	30.4	9	2,819	10.6	1	3
Zanesville, Ohio	Extension center	2	40,517	44	40.2	22.8	4	3,064	9.2	2	6

[a] No information could be found regarding the percentage of the community population engaged in manufacturing and trade other than on a county-wide basis.

[b] Information on types of principal industries was available for this community only on the basis of classification of industries employed by The Editor and Publisher Market Guide, *op. cit.*

APPENDIX B

CONVERSION OF HIGH SCHOOL APTITUDE TEST SCORES TO A COMMON MEASURE

Aptitude scores were available from all the 37 participating high schools, although they represented 18 different forms of 11 different tests administered at various times between the ninth and twelfth grades.

In order to derive a common measure which would indicate the relative scholastic aptitude of the 10,000 subjects, the School and College Ability Test, Form 1A (SCAT) was selected as the measure to which all other tests would be equated. There were two reasons for this choice: (1) The SCAT was most commonly used in the 37 high schools studied, and (2) it was considered to be among the tests most familiar to those in the field.

Two methods of equating test scores were originally considered. The first was the maximum likelihood method which is described by Lord.[1] It involves equating the means and standard deviations of two tests, x and y, administered to two different random samples of the same population, to a third test, w, administered to both samples. It requires that the distributions of the two samples have the same shape, and that the anchor test, w, correlate at least .50 with x and y. In the present study an anchor test was available since the 20-item Verbal Section of the Thorndike CAVD test was administered to the entire sample. However, the correlations of the other aptitude tests with the CAVD ranged from .23 to .65, with many coefficients in the .40's. Moreover, the requirement that the distributions for the two tests to be equated have the same shape could not be satisfied, since the SCAT distribution had greater spread than the other tests. For these reasons, Lord's method of equating tests was rejected.

Equating tests through common percentiles represents a second method of test conversion.[2] This method is not based upon an assumption such as that required by the maximum likelihood method. Furthermore, it provided a precedent since it was used to equate earlier versions of the ACE Psychological Examination to the SCAT when the latter test was published in 1955. For these reasons this method was adopted for use in the present study.

In the present instance, scores on the SCAT were available for 1,033 subjects in four high schools in one community. Percentile ranks for the SCAT, based on the scores of these 1,033 subjects were computed. Similarly, percentile ranks were computed for each of the other tests, based on all subjects for whom scores on that particular test at that grade level were available. Each test was then equated to the SCAT by plotting its scores on one axis, the SCAT scores on the other, and then plotting points where scores of the two tests had the same percentile rank. A smooth curve was drawn through the points, and equivalent scores for the two tests were assumed to fall on the curve. Tables of equivalent scores were then constructed for each test from the appropriate curve.

The range of SCAT scores falling within each decile as a result of this procedure compares favorably with the range of scores on the national norms as reported in the manual. The derived scores cannot, of course, be as accurate as scores from a single test would have been, but they represent a reasonable approximation to that ideal.

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[1] Lord, F. M., "Notes on Comparable Scales for Test Scores," Research Bulletin, RB-50-48, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1950.

[2] Karon, B. P., "The Stability of Equated Test Scores," Research Bulletin, RB-55-21, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1955.

APPENDIX C

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATIONS

Bases of Occupational Classifications

Certain criteria were used as bases for classifying occupational choices and fathers' occupations reported by the students in the sample. "Professional I" occupations are those generally requiring formal education beyond the baccalaureate degree, and/or a high degree of professional responsibility, and/or recognized certification, such as doctors and college professors. "Professional II" occupations are those generally not requiring more than the baccalaureate degree but demanding a certain amount of professional skill and understanding, such as teachers and nurses. "Semi-professional" occupations are those which do not demand four years of college training or its equivalent, but which require a specialized skill, talent or understanding, such as draftsmen and laboratory technicians. "Small businessmen" includes owners, partners and officials of all types of small businesses. The other classifications are self-descriptive.

Groupings of Classifications

Fathers' occupational classifications were categorized broadly at three levels (implying differences in education, skill, and responsibility) as follows:

High

Professional I
Professional II
Manager, executive, government official

Middle

Semi-professional
Small businessman
Sales and clerical
Skilled, foreman, farm manager

Low

Semi-skilled
Unskilled, farm laborer

Comparison of Occupational Classifications to U. S. Census Classification

To compare the occupational distribution of fathers of the students in the College Attendance Study sample to the labor force of the United States, it was necessary to combine several occupational categories in the present study so that they would correspond with the U. S. government classifications, as follows:

1. "Professional I," "Professional II" and "Semi-professional" categories were combined so that they would be comparable to the Census classification of "Professional, technical and kindred."

2. "Small business owner" was combined with "Managerial, executive or government official" to compare to the Census classification of "Managers, officials, proprietors (except farm)."

3. "Sales workers" and "Clerical and kindred workers" of the Census classification were combined to compare to "Sales and clerical workers."

4. "Craftsmen, foremen and kindred," "Operative and kindred workers" and "Farmers and farm managers" of the Census classification were combined to compare with the combination of "Skilled workers and foremen" and "Farm owners, managers and foremen."

5. "Laborers (except farm and mine)," "Farm laborers and foremen," "Service workers (except private household)," and "Private household workers" of the Census classification were combined to compare with the combination of "Semi-skilled workers," "Unskilled workers," and "Farm workers and tenants."

APPENDIX D

CLASSIFICATION OF MAGAZINES READ BY SENIORS AND THEIR PARENTS

In the 1959 survey questionnaire, the seniors were asked to check the magazines they read regularly from a list of twenty-six magazines. In addition, space was provided for the students to write in magazines not listed. In a separate question using a similar list of magazines, the seniors were asked to check the magazines their parents read regularly. The responses were grouped later into eight categories which are listed below with examples of magazines which were included in each category.

Pulp (True Romance, Photoplay, Galaxie)

General interest (Life, Saturday Evening Post, Good Housekeeping)

Sports and athletics (Sports Illustrated, Field & Stream)

News & world affairs (Time, Reporter, Newsweek)

Special interest (Farm Journal, Popular Mechanics, Hot Rod, Charm)

Cultural & scientific interest (Atlantic, Theatre Arts, Scientific American)

Religious interest (Christian Century, Watchtower, Power)

Other (Business Week, American Legion, Union)